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The Influence of Supportive Parenting and Racial Socialization on Internalizing and Externalizing Behaviors Among African-American Youth

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THE INFLUENCE OF SUPPORTIVE PARENTING AND RACIAL SOCIALIZATION ON INTERNALIZING AND EXTERNALIZING BEHAVIORS AMONG AFRICAN AMERICAN YOUTH

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ABSTRACT

The current study examined the additive and interactive effects of racial socialization on internalizing and externalizing behaviors. One hundred and thirty-six youth (mean age = 11.49, *SD* = 1.71) in fourth through eighth grade and parents of children these ages (*n* = 150) from 3 three locations of a community based family support agency reported on the youth's internalizing and externalizing behaviors, parental behavior, and racial socialization experiences. Correlational analyses were conducted to determine the relationship between study variables. Consistent with hypotheses, supportive parenting was associated with fewer maladaptive outcomes. Racial pride messages showed a trend level association to outcomes. Regression analyses were conducted to determine if racial socialization messages added unique variance to outcomes above supportive parenting. Results indicated that racial socialization showed additive effects on internalizing behaviors when examined with supportive parenting. Regression analyses were also conducted to determine if increased racial socialization messages moderated the association of supportive parenting to internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Results indicated that racial pride messages interacted with supportive parenting to predict both internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Results are discussed in regards to the implications of additive and integrative models of racial socialization and supportive parenting in promoting adaptive functioning among low-income African-American youth.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

African-American youth from low-income communities experience multiple stressors compared to their middle-class, European-American counterparts (Gonzales & Kim, 1997). The experience of stress has shown an association to adverse psychological outcomes, such as internalizing and externalizing symptoms; however, some stress-exposed youth do not experience these negative outcomes. Resilience is the process of demonstrating adaptive outcomes despite exposure to circumstances that usually produce negative outcomes (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000). The resilience literature has shown that the parent-child relationship, particularly a warm and supportive one, is one of the most crucial determinants of positive outcomes in at-risk youth (Baldwin, 1955; Garmezy, 1985; Jarrettt, 1997). However, most research on parenting has been conducted primarily with middle-class European-American samples and the implications for African-American children, especially in under-resourced environments, are less clear. By 2035, children of color are predicted to comprise 50% of the U.S. school population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004). Therefore, it will become necessary, for those who study or interact with children, to understand the diverse and unique needs of ethnic minority youth. The parent-child relationship and parenting behaviors may be even more important for African-American youth because they spend more time with their families than other groups (Giordano, Cernkovich, & DeMaris, 1993; Larson, Richards, Sims, & Dworkin,

2001). Theoretical models of the development of ethnic minority youth, such as the Integrative Model of Development for Minority Youth (Garcia-Coll, et al., 1996), include both culturally specific factors and mainstream factors. These models assert the salience of culturally specific parenting factors, such as racial socialization, for ethnic minority youth. Interestingly, despite theoretical frameworks that propose the importance of both mainstream and culturally-relevant factors, very little empirical research has considered the benefits of combining mainstream parenting and culturally specific parenting strategies on African-American youth outcomes. The current study asserts that an integrative approach to examining the impact of parenting on African-American youth development is necessary; specifically that culturally relevant parenting practices, such as racial socialization, are best examined in the context of practices that are helpful to all parents (e.g. parental support).

The purpose of the current study is to examine an integrative model of parenting for African American youth. Specifically, the current study examines the additive effects of racial socialization to the effects of supportive parenting on African American youth's internalizing and externalizing behaviors, as well as the interactive effects of racial socialization, supportive on internalizing and externalizing behaviors. It was hypothesized that parental support would be negatively associated with internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Also, it was predicted that higher scores on racial socialization messages, emphasizing racial pride, would be associated with lower internalizing and externalizing behaviors; higher scores on racial socialization messages emphasizing

racial bias would be associated with higher internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Racial socialization was predicted to explain unique variances in internalizing and externalizing behavior scores above and beyond the effects of supportive parenting. Last, it was predicted that racial socialization would moderate relations among mainstream parenting and internalizing and externalizing behaviors. It was hypothesized that messages emphasizing racial bias would weaken the association between support to internalizing and externalizing behaviors, while messages emphasizing racial pride would strengthen the association between support and internalizing and externalizing behaviors.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The Influence of Parenting Behavior

Parenting impacts a variety of adaptive functioning outcomes, such as competency, positive emotional adaption, academic achievement, and self-esteem (Bean, Bush, McHenry, & Wilson, 2003; Greene & Way, 2005; Jackson, Bee-Gates, & Henriksen, 1994; Prevatt, 2003). Over the past several decades, a wealth of research has been conducted to identify specific parenting practices that are most salient for children and adolescents (Baldwin, 1955; Baumrind & Black, 1967; Shelton, Frick, & Wootton, 1996). An overwhelming majority of this research has been conducted with European-American youth and the implications for African-American children, especially in under-resourced environments, remain unclear.

Research on parenting has assessed both the broad dimensions of parenting style and specific parenting behaviors. Early behavioral studies argued for a reinforcement model of parenting where desired child behaviors were rewarded and undesired behaviors were punished (Baldwin, 1955). This broad model of parenting style was characterized by psychological control (i.e., attempts to control which disrupt psychological and emotional development) and corporal punishment (Barber, 1996). While children of these parents tended to achieve academically, many seemed to be untrusting, withdrawn and lacking in social responsibility (Baumrind & Black, 1967). As

a backlash to the epistemology of that time, theories were developed that advocated child-centered practices where children were encouraged to express their unique differences (Spock, 1946). These child-centered practices called for less demands and more lax control from parents. With this style, however, also came a decrease in children's self-reliance and self-control (Baumrind & Black, 1967).

The next proposed framework for parenting was developed by Baumrind and colleagues in 1967 as a response to the conflict in parenting literature. Baumrind (1967) proposed three types of parental control: authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive - with some being more successful at facilitating child adjustment. This framework has become the most widely used framework for parenting children from preschool to adolescence.

The authoritative dimension is characterized by an equal use of firm control and positive encouragement and freedom. According to Baumrind (1991), authoritative parents attempt to raise their children in a "rational, issue-oriented manner" (p. 891). They set firm and consistent rules for their children for which they explain the reasoning behind them. Authoritative parents also encourage child input as a means to facilitate child independence. Some effects of authoritative parenting on child behavior are increases in self-regulation and self-reliance, ability to withstand hardships, maturity, and assertiveness (Baumrind, 1991). Other outcomes positively associated with authoritative parenting include strengths in academic achievement, self-esteem, and healthy peer relationships (Chen, Dong, & Zhou, 1997; Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch,

1991).

Authoritarian parenting is when parent try to control their child using their rules as the absolute standard of behavior (Baumrind & Black, 1967). Parents who subscribe to the authoritarian parenting style place high demands on their children with strict rules, harsh consequences for disobedience, and few freedoms for the child. These parents do not offer explanations of rules based on the reasoning that children should always conform to adult authority. Authoritarian parents often use punishment as a way to control child behavior, with little to no reinforcement for positive behavior. Independence and autonomy is limited to encourage child compliance (Baumrind, 1991). Children parented in this manner often show deficits in academic performance, may be withdrawn, hostile and constrained in creativity (Chen, Dong, & Zhou, 1997; Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, & Roberts, 1987).

A permissive parent (also known as the Indulgent style) is one whose parenting style is characterized by acting in an accepting manner of the child's freedom of expression, impulses, and desires, while avoiding restriction and control of child behaviors. This parent is non-punitive and shows strengths in the use of encouragement (Baumrind & Black, 1967). While the permissive parent shows warmth to the child, he/she fails to exert parental authority and structure. Permissive parents do not model behavior for the child, but instead leave the child to decide appropriate behavior, which can often produce tension in the child. Permissive parenting has been shown to leave children feeling insecure, threatened, chaotic, immature and unable to self-regulate

(Baumrind & Black, 1967).

Maccoby and Martin (1983) introduced the terms “responsiveness and demandingness” derived from Baumrind’s parenting dimensions. Parental responsiveness refers to "the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands" (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Parental demandingness is defined as "the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys" (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). They discussed a fourth parenting type derived from Baumrind’s Permissive dimension, called Neglectful parenting (Kaufmann, Gesten, Santa Lucia, Slacedo, Rendina-Gobioff, & Gadd, 2002) (Kaufmann, Gesten, Santa Lucia, et al., 2000). Neglectful parenting is differentiated from the aforementioned permissive parenting style in that it reflects low levels of both demandingness and responsiveness - whereas permissive parenting reflects high levels of responsiveness, but low levels of demandingness. The neglectful parent’s rules are enforced situationally and inconsistently, if ever. Neglectful parenting seems to be a result of circumstance, rather than a preferred way of parenting. Specifically, parents using this style tend to come from economically disadvantaged backgrounds, with little education and more mental health difficulties than parents in the other three typologies (Mandara, 2003). This style often results in child misbehavior and problems with self-perceptions, achievement, competency, and is marked by contradictory behavior (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Implications for African-American Youth

While Baumrind's parenting style framework provides a general guideline for research on parenting, the application of the framework to African-American youth has shown results that differ from research on European-American youth. African-American parents tend to have a more authoritarian style than authoritative (Baumrind, 1972). Whereas Baumrind's paradigm suggests that the authoritarian style predicts more negative psychological outcomes, other studies propose that the authoritarian style may not produce the negative outcomes in African-American adolescents that it produces in other populations. For example, in a study conducted with African-American and European-American families, it was found that physical discipline was related to externalizing problems in the European-American sample, but not the African-American sample (Deater-Deckard, Bates, Dodge, & Petit, 1996). In another study examining family variables in relation to ethnicity and community context, authoritarian practices that were perceived as excessive, harsh, and punitive by European-American youth were considered a sign of "parental involvement" and concern by African-American youth (Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Steinberg, 1996). Additionally, Brooks-Gunn and Markman (2005) performed an exploratory analysis with 700 African-American and European-American mothers. Along with the classic authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles they found a new parenting style that they called "tough love." Parents who exhibit "tough love" are those parents who have high levels of warm, firm control as well as high levels of negative harsh control. They found that children in this group had higher IQ and

academic outcomes than those with parents in both the neglectful and authoritarian groups. In sum, these findings suggest that African-American parents may utilize different parenting styles than European-American that are actually adaptive for their children.

In addition to race and ethnicity, socioeconomic status (SES) may play a role in parenting and outcomes of parenting. Specifically, lower SES parents are more likely to use a less responsive, more demanding parenting style that may be due to the burden of economic stress (McLoyd, 1990). Because African-American children are more likely than European-American children to live in economically disadvantaged, stressful environments, parents may exert greater demandingness and less support on their children because it may be adaptive for these high-stress environments (Deater-Deckard, Bates, Dodge, & Petit, 1996; U.S. Census Bureau, 2004) (Deater-Deckard et al., 1996; US Census Bureau, 2004). Additionally, existing findings for the implications of parenting styles in middle or upper-middle class European-American families may not generalize easily to low-income families or to ethnic minority families. Certain components of Baumrind's parenting styles may be more culturally sanctioned in one group versus another or may not be conducive to a high-stress environment (Baumrind, 1972). Because African-American families are more difficult to classify into these broad categories, it may be more useful to examine how specific parenting behaviors or aspects of the parent-child relationship are associated with adaptive outcomes in African-American families (Bean, Bush, McHenry, & Wilson, 2003). Consistent with this

assertion, parenting behaviors emphasizing warmth, closeness, and support will be emphasized in the current study.

Supportive Parenting

The parenting literature has identified supportive parenting as critical to youth development (e.g., Koblinsky, Kulvanka, & Randolph, 2006; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Petit, Bates, & Dodge, 1997). Supportive parenting can be described as a set of parental behaviors, characterized by warmth, sensitivity, empathy, playfulness and acceptance (Chronis, et al., 2007; Jones, Forehand, Brody, & Armistead, 2002; Shelton, Frick, & Wootton, 1996). In general, parental support has been linked to more positive outcomes in children and adolescents. Supportive parenting gives children an internal representation of acceptance and helps them feel comfortable in the parent-child relationship, thus, it is critical for forming secure attachments. It is positively associated with adaptive psychological and developmental outcomes, such as educational attainment and self-esteem (Dekovic & Meeus, 1997; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989). In a study conducted with a predominately European-American sample, parental support was associated with a decrease in depressive symptoms (Stice, Ragan, & Randall, 2004). A study conducted with an urban Mexican-American sample found that, for girls, supportive parenting was associated with lower-levels of externalizing behaviors (Manongdo & Garcia, 2007). Supportive parenting behaviors are protective against the negative outcomes of life stress such as social skill deficits, aggression, and anxiety (McCabe, Clark, & Barnett, 1999).

Additionally, another study found that emotional warmth or supportive parenting was negatively related to internalizing and externalizing symptoms (Roelofs, ter Huurne, Bamelis, & Muris, 2006). An investigation of positive parenting and maternal optimism demonstrated that children whose mothers engaged in supportive parenting practices reported fewer psychosocial adjustment problems and lower levels of externalizing and internalizing problems than children whose parents did less of these practices (Jones, Forehand, Brody, & Armistead, 2002). Parents who engage in positive, supportive parenting are modeling pro-social behaviors to their children may better help them engage with others and experience school success (Koblinsky, Kulvanka, & Randolph, 2006). Likewise, unsupportive parenting involves behaviors such as showing hostility, criticism, distancing, and may contribute to negative outcomes such as depression, substance usage, delinquency and aggressive behaviors (Pineda, Cole, & Bruce, 2007; Simons, Paternite, & Shore, 2001; Hundleby & Mercer, 1987). In summary, a warm, supportive parental environment tends to be associated with adaptive outcomes for youth in a variety of samples. With the absence of support from parents during development, both children and adolescent may experience a host of psychosocial problems.

Supportive Parenting and African-American Youth

Results for parental support are similar for African-American youth to those described above. A review of parenting research found that supportive parenting behaviors are related to a variety of pro-social outcomes, including higher levels of competence, self-regulation, academic achievement, and family harmony, as well as

lower levels of psychological dysfunction and externalizing problem behaviors in African-American youth (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005). Further more, perceived parental support is significantly related to child adjustment in African-American youth regardless of age, gender, or social class (Veneziano, 2000). For example, one study examined how parental support relates to delinquency and depression in a sample of African-American adolescents. Results demonstrated that paternal support, in particular, was related to lower levels of both depression and delinquency (Bean, Barber, & Crane, 2006). In another study, supportive parenting behaviors were positively related to both self-esteem and academic achievement in an African-American sample of youth (Bean, Bush, McHenry, & Wilson, 2003). In a longitudinal study examining factors that decrease problem behaviors in urban, male adolescents, parental support was found to predict lower levels of anxiety and depression in stressful environments (Zimmerman, Ramirez-Valles, Zapert, & Maton, 2000). Another study found that parental warmth was a stronger predictor of decreases in aggression than parental monitoring (Jones, Forehand, Brody, & Armistead, 2002). These studies show that a warm, accepting, and supportive parenting environment seems to be conducive to adaptive psychosocial outcomes for African-American youth.

Interestingly, the parenting practices that are viewed as supportive may be different for African American youth. A study of 298 adolescents and mothers found that warmth was associated with positive outcomes in African-American youth. However, ethnic groups differed on which parenting practices their children perceived as warm and

supportive (Jackson-Newsom, Buchanan, & McDonald, 2008). For European-American youth, allowing children to make their own decisions was perceived as warm, but was perceived as hostile for African-American children (Jackson-Newsom et al., 2008). This finding underscores the need for additional research with African American families.

Implications for Models of Functioning in African-American Youth

Although the majority of research on parenting behaviors and the parent-child relationship has been with European-American youth, parenting behaviors and the parent-child relationship may be even more important for African-American youth because of the strong value placed on family relationships in the African-American community (Larson, Richards, Sims, & Dworkin, 2001; Wilson, Foster, Anderson, & Mance, 2009). Research shows that, across socio-economic statuses, African-American youth place a higher value on family interaction than their European-American counterparts (Giordano, Cernkovich, & DeMaris, 1993; Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan, & Buriel, 1990; Taylor & Roberts, 1995). In addition, across grade, gender, and socio-economic status, African-American children spend more time with their family members than other ethnic groups. For example, one study examined how urban African-American youth spend their time using the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) and found that African-American children spent 50.7% of their time at home compared to 43.1% in the Caucasian sample (Larson et al., 2001). More time with family may be reflective of the importance of collectivism or communalism in the African-American culture. Collectivism is defined as interdependence between groups and is characterized by giving

priority to the group over the individual, shaping behavior based on in-group norms, and behaving communally (Triandis, 2001)). Collectivism is an important dimension of an African-centered worldview based on the old African proverb "I am because we are and because we are therefore I am" (Boykin, Jagers, Ellison, & Albury, 1997). These ideals are in direct contrast with Euro-centric ideals of individualism, which stress uniqueness and status gained through independence and self-reliance (Constantine, Gainor, Ahluwalia, & Berkel, 2003). In essence, the need for more research on parenting and the parent-child relationship in African-American families is justified by cultural values that promote strong relationships among family members.

African-American parents face the same challenges as other parents but have the additional challenge of incorporating unique parenting practices because of their status as a historically oppressed minority group in America. While all parents socialize their kids to help them prepare for life outside the family and into adulthood, African-American families must incorporate race into these discussions (Sanders Thompson, 1994). It has been asserted that using models of resilience based on middle-class European samples is not adequate for understanding the psychosocial functioning of African-American youth (Garcia-Coll, et al., 1996; Klonoff, Landrine, & Ullman, 1999; Zimmerman, Ramirez-Valles, Zapert, & Maton, 2000). Not only is it important to add to the literature on mainstream parenting behaviors (e.g. parental support) in African-American families, it is also important to understand the role of culturally specific parenting behavior. Models on the development of ethnic minority youth, such as the Integrative Model of Development

for Minority Youth, recommend that research examine more complex models that include culturally specific factors as well as mainstream factors (Garcia-Coll, et al., 1996; Spencer & Markstrom-Adams, 1990).

These models may provide information on the various types of factors that may be most salient for African-American youth development. Unfortunately, there is little to no research discussing if culturally relevant parenting strategies can add to protective effects of the mainstream strategies, like parental support. One culturally relevant parenting strategy that will be examined in the current study is racial socialization. Previous literature on parenting asserts that parenting style is best understood as a context or an environment which influences the specific practices that parents utilize. Therefore, it becomes important to utilize models of parenting which incorporate both specific parenting practices as well as more general parenting characteristics such as support (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Racial Socialization

Since the 1980s, research has become more aware that talking to children about race and culture is an important part of parenting for ethnic minority families (Hughes, Rodriguez, Smith, Johnson, Stevenson, & Spicer, 2006; Peters, 1985; Stevenson, Reed, Bodison, & Bishop, 1997). These talks seem to be most utilized as a protective factor against stressors such as racial discrimination and oppression. Racial socialization can be defined as "the tasks Black parents share with all parents providing for and raising children… including the responsibility of raising physically and emotionally healthy

children who are Black in a society where being Black has negative connotations" (Peters, 1985, p. 161). Because of prejudice, oppression, and the devaluing of ethnic minorities in American culture (Charles, Dinwiddie, & Massey, 2004), it becomes necessary for African-Americans to socialize their children to race in a developmentally appropriate manner (Garcia-Coll, et al., 1996; Swanson, Cunningham, & Spencer, 2003). Racial socialization processes can be indirect or direct, verbal or nonverbal, covert or overt, and are not necessarily the same in all families (Brown & Krishnakumar, 2007; Thornton, Chatters, Taylor, & Allen, 1990).

While these terms are often used interchangeably, there are distinct differences between racial socialization, ethnic socialization, and cultural socialization. Racial socialization refers to processes that African-American parents specifically use, including the aforementioned tasks of discussing discrimination, preparation for bias, and instilling racial pride (Hughes et al., 2006). Ethnic socialization is associated with the processes of multiple ethnic groups including Hispanics, Asian-Americans, and Native-Americans (Peters, 1985; Spencer & Markstrom-Adams, 1990). It commonly refers to issues such as assimilation and acculturation into mainstream society (Knight, Bernal, Garza, Cota, & Ocampo, 1993; Quintana & Vera, 1999). Cultural socialization refers to any parental practices which instill cultural pride and promote cultural history (Hughes et al., 2006). These talks do not include discussions of discrimination or prejudice but instead emphasize the strengths of one's own culture.

Of the three types of socialization mentioned above, racial socialization has been

studied most frequently in research with African-Americans (Hughes et al., 2006). There are specific types of messages associated with racial socialization in African-American families although each family may not incorporate all of them into their individual parenting behaviors. The first type of racial socialization message involves instilling cultural pride. Included in this task is telling children about accomplishments African-Americans have made, sharing cultural values, and teaching cultural practices (Hughes et al., 2006). The next type of racial socialization message involves preparation for bias or coping with discrimination, which is more common in African-American families than in any other ethnic group (Hughes & Chen, 1997). In a study of African-American families, only 5.5% reported never discussing issues of discrimination with their children (Frabutt, Walker, & MacKinnon-Lewis, 2002). Promotion of cultural mistrust may also be another part of racial socialization. Messages of mistrust of other cultures, especially of European-Americans, are evident in African-Americans parents' cautions about other groups and about cultural issues that may impede their children's success. These messages do not include advice for how to cope with discrimination, but simply warn of its daunting effects (Hughes & Chen, 1997). A final component of racial socialization is emphasizing egalitarianism. This includes avoiding discussions of race, and instead stresses the importance of individual rather than group accomplishments and equality of races. Some term this socialization "mainstream socialization" (Boykin & Toms, 1985). African-Americans, however, who engage in this practice may also stress behaviors such as hard work, virtue, and drive as racial socialization strategies (Demo & Hughes, 1990).

According to Hughes and colleagues' (2006) there are certain demographic factors which may predict levels of racial socialization. The first demographic factor is the age of the child. Adolescents are more likely than younger children to receive racial socialization messages from their parents due to their developmental competency. Parents may believe that older children can understand issues associated with discrimination better than younger children and may be better able to cope with these issues. Younger children tend to receive more egalitarian messages whereas older children receive the racial socialization messages associated with coping with discrimination (Hughes et al., 2006). Child gender is another predictor of type of racial socialization message transmitted by parents. In a study of 104 African-American parents, it was reported that girls were more likely to receive messages with an emphasis of racial pride, while boys received messages focused on overcoming racism (Thomas & Speight, 1999). Differences in messages may be because African-American boys are more likely to be racially profiled and are disproportionately at-risk for incarceration and homicide due to racial prejudice (U.S. Department of Justice, 2000).

Other influencing factors are related to family characteristics. For example, youth reared in homes with higher-incomes and more parental education may perceive more prejudice than their low-income counterparts and, in turn, implement more racial socialization practices (Williams, 1999). Also, parental factors such as racial identity and experience with discrimination also influence the racial socialization messages they provide. Parental racial identity is also important, with parents with high centrality (high

allegiance to African-American group membership) and private regard (high positive regard toward the African-American community) showing a tendency to give more group pride messages to their kids (Hughes et al., 2006). Finally, the more discrimination experiences parents have, the more they tend to socialize their children to race (Hughes & Chen, 1997).

The idea of racial socialization assumes that the socialization of African-American children occurs in a context of racism, discrimination and oppression (McCreary, Slavin, & Berry, 1996; Stevenson & Arrington, 2009). Many studies have found that racism can be acutely distressful to one's physical and emotional well-being (Carter R. T., 2007; Clark, Anderson, Clark, & Williams, 1999; Harrell, Hall, & Taliaferro, 2003; Nyborg & Curry, 2003; Plummer & Slane, 1996). Racial discrimination also contributes negatively to African-American adolescents' mental health (Broman, 1997; Gaylord-Harden & Cunningham, 2009; Klonoff, Landrine, & Ullman, 1999). In the past decade, studies have shown racial socialization to have protective effects, including buffering the negative effects of racial distress (Stevenson , 1995; Stevenson, Reed, & Bodison, 1996).

Limitations in Previous Research on Racial Socialization

Despite the reported protective benefits of racial socialization against discrimination, outcomes on its protective nature in the research are inconsistent. One study found that racial socialization promotes positive racial identity, and racial identity serves as protective for African-American against the negative consequences of

discrimination (Stevenson, 1995). Other positive outcomes associated with racial socialization messages are higher self-esteem, adaptive coping with prejudice, and more favorable academic outcomes (Chavous, Bernat, Schmeelk-Cone, Caldwell, Kohn-Wood, & Zimmerman, 2003; Harris-Britt, Valrie, Kurtz-Costes, & Rowley, 2007; Oyserman, Harrison, & Bybee, 2001; Spencer, 1983). While these studies demonstrate the adaptive effect of racial socialization, others argue, however, that racial socialization may actually increase problem externalizing behaviors such as violence and aggression (Szalacha, Erkut, Garcia-Coll, & Fields, 2003). Additionally, one study found that racial socialization beliefs were associated with higher scores in low self-esteem, learned helplessness, and sad mood for boys (Stevenson et al., 1997). However, a follow-up study found lower scores in low self-esteem and low reports of low energy for the same demographic (Davis & Stevenson, 2006).

We propose several reasons for these inconsistencies. The first issue involves the lack of a consistent definition of what encompasses each of the various components of racial socialization. One often utilized definition of racial socialization emphasizes the process by which families teach group membership and rules about a particular culture (Rotherham & Phinney, 1987), while another highlights its utility in teaching about race relations and protecting against discrimination (Stevenson, Cameron, Herrero-Taylor, & Davis, 2002). Also, studies often fail to distinguish between racial socialization beliefs and racial socialization experiences when describing racial socialization. Racial socialization experiences are the experiences children have or messages they receive

which influence how they view race. Racial socialization beliefs, on the other hand, are what children actually believe about race due to racial socialization experiences due to how they interpret the messages they have received from their environment. They may differentially affect children's perceptions of race and race-related factors (Davis & Stevenson, 2006).

There are also several methodological problems with how racial socialization is studied. First, although demographic factors such as age and gender may influence the association between racial socialization and outcomes, few studies tend to account for these differences. For example, racial socialization was found to be associated with reports of less sadness and hopelessness for girls but more for boys (Stevenson, Reed, Bodison, & Bishop, 1997). Second, some research uses a global measure of racial socialization that combines several types of messages (Scott, 2003; Wilson, Foster, Anderson, & Mance, 2009). As described previously, there are several types of messages which encompass racial socialization, ranging from instilling cultural pride to preparing for bias, and the different types of messages may produce distinctive outcomes. In a study on African-American and Caribbean-American adolescent boys, racial socialization messages emphasizing cultural mistrust were associated with higher rates of delinquency (Biafora et al., 1993). A study of 160 African-American adolescents' racial socialization experiences found that messages which emphasized benefits associated with being involved in majority culture institutions were associated with higher levels of depression (Bowman & Howard, 1985). Perhaps adolescents become frustrated when their ideals of

the majority society conflict with the reality of discrimination in trying to fit in. Also, messages which emphasize alertness to discrimination predicted increases in helplessness and depression. This may be because youth in low-income neighborhoods feel that they have no power over discrimination and may rely on others take over responsibilities that they may actually be able to do themselves (Stevenson, Reed, Bodison, & Bishop, 1997). Stevenson and colleagues (1997) also describe a decrease in anger expression and aggression when cultural pride messages were included in racial socialization processes. Messages emphasizing coping strategies and cultural pride tend to increase self-esteem whereas messages of mistrust of the majority tend to be associated with depression and delinquency suggesting that certain messages may be more adaptive than others. Thus, it may be necessary to examine the various components of racial socialization individually, rather than combining components.

Another limitation of research on racial socialization is that studies tend to rely on either parent data (Hughes & Chen, 1997; Thomas & Speight, 1999) or youth data (Stevenson, 1996; 1997; 2009) to examine the effects of racial socialization on outcomes. While it may not be important to determine which reporters are most accurate, including both parents and youth informants in parenting research provides different perspectives on experiences within the family (Gaylord, Kitzmann, & Coleman, 2003). Especially due to the inconsistencies in racial socialization literature, in the current study we will be assessing the associations between racial socialization and internalizing and externalizing behaviors separately for parent-report of behavior and child-report of behavior due to the

low correspondence typically found between reporters (Achenbach, McConaughy, & Howell, 1987; Glaser, Kronsnoble, & Forkner, 1997).

Finally, it seems that racial socialization is better explained in an integrative manner in the context of other parenting practices. Sellers (1998) describes the multidimensional nature of racial identity, an outcome frequently associated with racial socialization. Racial identity, or strong identification with one's racial group, has been studied in the literature as a protective factor against racial discrimination (Cross, 1991; Phinney J. , 1992; Sellers & Shelton, 2003). Mainstream literature on racial identity focused more on universal meanings of race while "underground" literature focused more on experiences that were unique to African-Americans in their discussion of racial identity (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992; Phinney J. , 1992). Sellers' (1998) model, however, combines these two ideas and focuses on the meaning African-Americans to their race and describes how this meaning may change situationally. He argues that racial identity should be understood in the context of other important identities, such as gender and occupation.

In the same manner, racial socialization may be best understood in the context of other parenting practices that are salient to African-American youth. For example, how a child interprets these messages may be influenced by their relationship with the parent outside of these messages, such as how warm, supportive, or caring the parent is to them. Racial socialization may enhance the effects of supportive parenting in a compensatory fashion or an interactive fashion. In a compensatory model, due to the importance of

racial socialization for African American youth, racial socialization may add unique protective effects above and beyond the effects of supportive parenting. In an interactive model, racial socialization acts as a moderator. Baron and Kenny (1986) define a moderator as "a variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between a predictor and a criterion variable" (p. 1174). In the current study, we will be testing racial socialization as a moderator of association between supportive parenting and outcomes. It is evident that an integrative approach which takes into account all of these factors in addition to mainstream parenting factors contributes most accurately to our understanding of parenting African-American youth.

The Current Study

The current study aims to utilize a more integrative theoretical foundation as indicated in Garcia-Coll's (1996) Integrative Model of Development for Minority Youth. This approach encourages utilizing both mainstream and culturally-specific factors when examining the psychosocial functioning of ethnic minority youth. Supportive parental behavior is one of the most important determinants of adaptive outcomes in youth, showing inverse associations to internalizing and externalizing behavior (Baldwin, 1955; Garmezy, 1985; Jarrettt, 1997). In addition, the associations for this mainstream parenting factor have also been demonstrated in African American youth due especially to the importance of family in African-American culture (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005; Veneziano, 2000). Due to being reared in a context of racism and oppression, African American parents must also use parenting strategies, such as racial socialization, that are

unique to the African American experience to enhance this level of support for their children (Hughes, Rodriguez, Smith, Johnson, Stevenson, & Spicer, 2006; Stevenson, Reed, Bodison, & Bishop, 1997). The current study will investigate how racial socialization, as a culturally relevant parenting practice, adds to the protective effects of a mainstream factors of supportive parenting in decreasing adverse psychological outcomes of internalizing and externalizing disorders. The current study will investigate two models of the combined effect of racial socialization and supportive parenting. The first model posits an additive effect, in which racial socialization is expected to add unique protective effects when done in conjunction with mainstream supportive parenting. The second model is an interactive model, in which racial socialization is expected to act as a moderator of association between supportive parenting and outcomes. We will examine this culturally-specific factor in conjunction with mainstream factor of supportive parenting practices. The hypotheses of the current study are as follows:

1. *Hypothesis 1:* Based on previous literature, it is hypothesized that parental support will be negatively associated with internalizing and externalizing behaviors.
2. *Hypothesis 2*: It is predicted that messages emphasizing racial pride will be negatively associated with internalizing and externalizing scores, while messages emphasizing racial bias will be positively associated with internalizing and externalizing behaviors.
3. *Hypothesis 3:* Racial socialization will explain unique variance in internalizing

and externalizing behavior scores above and beyond the effects of supportive parenting.

4. *Hypothesis 4:* It is predicted that racial socialization will moderate relations among mainstream parenting and internalizing and externalizing behaviors.
    a. Racial bias will moderate the association between support and outcomes. Specifically, under conditions of high racial bias, support and outcomes will have a weaker relationship and will have a stronger relationship when under low racial bias conditions.
    b. Racial pride will moderate the association between support and outcomes. Specifically, under conditions of high racial pride, support and outcomes will have a stronger relationship and will have a weaker relationship when under low racial pride conditions.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Participants

Participants in the current study were 136 children in fourth through eighth grade (mean age = 11.49) and parents of children these ages (n = 150) who attended community-based family support agency in a large Midwestern city. The participants have been self-referred to this agency. The data were gathered as a part of larger study designed to identify protective family factors for African-American youth facing multiple, chronic stressors. Virtually all participants were African-American and from primarily low-income communities. Because of the nature and purpose of the study, almost 100% of the participants were African-American (96.5% African-American; 2.8% other; 0.7% Latino). For youth, the sample consisted of approximately 40% boys and 60% girls and for parents 95% women and 5% men. 75% of participants came from families with annual income levels of less than $30,000; 31.5% had annual family incomes of less than $10,000. According to Cohen (1992), to detect a medium effect at Power = .80 with 5 predictors in multiple regression analysis, a minimum of 91 subjects is needed for an alpha level of .05. Thus, the current sample provides adequate power for the analyses conducted.

Procedure

Parents and children that are members of a community-based, family support

agency in three locations of a large Midwestern city were included in the study. All students who were in fourth through eighth grade were invited to participate in this study. Participants were recruited through center-based family nights, parenting groups, after school youth programs, center-sponsored community-based resource fairs, and other events at the center (see Appendix C). Active parental consent was obtained for all participants; with a consent form that outlined the nature of the project, expectations of the participant, information on confidentiality and compensation (see Appendix D). Children who received parental consent to participate signed an assent form before completing surveys (see Appendix E). The youth participants were asked to complete a packet of pencil-and-paper psychological surveys. Data were collected either individually with each youth participant. Two 1-hour interview sessions were scheduled during the after-school program at the agency or other individual sessions. In each individual session, a research assistant read the survey items to the participant and the survey participant provided responses to each item (see Appendix F). Youth received a free movie pass for completion of the surveys (see Appendix G).

Parents who consented to participate were given the option to complete the packet at the agency in group data collection sessions, at parenting groups, individually at the agency, or at home. For individual or group data collection sessions at the agency, a trained research assistant was available to monitor progress and answer questions. For surveys completed at home, the primary investigator was available via phone to answer any questions. For their participation, families received a $15.00 gift card to a local

grocery store for each child that participated in the project.

Youth Measures

Supportive parenting. The Alabama Parenting Questionnaire - Child Version (APQ; Shelton, Frick, & Wootton, 1996) was used to assess children's perceptions of supportive parenting practices (see Appendix A). The APQ Child Version is designed to complement the APQ Parent Version. The measure is composed of 42 items rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *never (1)* to *always (5).* The items aggregate to form five subscales: involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring/supervision, inconsistent discipline, and corporal punishment. For the purposes of this study, involvement and positive parenting were combined to create a construct for parental support. Reliability coefficients were obtained in order to determine if the two variables for the APQ measure of parental support can be combined. The reliability coefficient was .758 which indicates that there is internal consistency between the two variables, and therefore, the two variables were combined for the statistical analyses. Higher scores indicated higher levels of supportive parenting.

Racial socialization. The Racial Bias Preparation Scale (RBPS: Fisher, Wallace, & Fenton, 2000) was used to assess youth perceptions of racial socialization (see Appendix A). The RBPS is a 30-item, self-report inventory designed to assess the frequency with which children and adolescents perceive that they receive messages from their primary caregivers regarding ethnicity/racially-linked experiences. The instrument assesses elements of experiences and messages that can be related to a multiethnic

sample, rather than focusing on the unique elements that distinguish particular ethnic groups. Participants responded to questions on a 3-point Likert scale from "never" to "a lot." The reactive messages subscale consists of 10 items measuring ethnic prejudice awareness and was used to represent racial bias. The proactive messages subscale consists of 10 items measuring ethnic pride reinforcement and was used to represent racial pride. The contrast subscale consists of 10 items but were not utilized in the current study. Internal consistencies range from .83 to .86 (Fisher et al., 2000). Higher scores indicated higher levels of racial socialization messages.

Psychological outcomes. The Youth Self-Report (YSR; Achenbach T. M., 1991; Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1987) is a self-report measure designed to assess behavior problems in adolescents (see Appendix A). The measure includes 119 behavior items, which the adolescent rates on a 3-point scale as 0 = not true, 1 = somewhat or sometimes true, or 2 = very true or often true of himself or herself during the past six months. The problem items are grouped into eight subscales and three overall scales. The Withdrawn, Somatic Complaints, Anxious/Depressed subscales create the Internalizing scale. The Delinquent Behavior and Aggressive Behavior subscales create the Externalizing scale. The remaining subscales are the Social Problems, Thought Problems, Attention Problems subscales and are neither internalizing nor externalizing. For the purposes of this study only the Internalizing and Externalizing scales were used. Higher scores indicated higher levels of these problems. Normative data for the YSR are based on a nationally representative sample of non-referred children and adolescents, with separate norms for

boys and girls. Reliability and validity are well established for the YSR (Achenbach, 1991). The YSR is designed to be used with youth ages 11 and older, therefore only participants ages 11 and older in the current study completed the measure.

Parent Measures

Demographics. (see Appendix B). A one-page questionnaire was used to obtain information regarding child and parent participants' age, gender, grade, language, and race/ethnicity. Information was also obtained about caregivers' occupational status, education level, annual family income, number of persons currently living in the child's home.

Supportive parenting practices. The Alabama Parenting Questionnaire-Parent Version (APQ; Shelton, Frick, & Wootton, 1996) was used to assess parents' self-perceptions of supportive parenting practices (see Appendix B). The measure is composed of 42 items rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from Never (1) to Always (5). The items aggregate to form five subscales: involvement, positive parenting, poor monitoring/supervision, inconsistent discipline, and corporal punishment. For the purposes of this study, involvement and positive parenting were used as a construct for parental support. Reliability coefficients were obtained to determine if the two variables on the APQ measure can be combined. The reliability coefficient was .707 which indicates that there is internal consistency between the two variables, and therefore, the two variables were combined for the statistical analyses. Convergent validity has been established as adequate ($r = 0.35$) and divergent validity

ranged from 0.01 to 0.48 (Shelton et al.., 1996). Higher scores indicated higher levels of each construct. The APQ Parent Version is designed to complement the APQ Child Version.

Racial socialization. The Parent Experience of Racial Socialization Scale (PERS; Stevenson, Cameron, Herrero-Taylor, & Davis, 2002) is a 40-item self-report inventory that assesses the degree to which African American parents use proactive and protective socialization strategies about managing racism, cultural pride, and spirituality (see Appendix B). The PERS is a modification of the Teenager Experience of Racial Socialization scale. The items are grouped into the following five subscales: Cultural Coping with Antagonism, Cultural Pride Reinforcement, Cultural Appreciation of Legacy, Cultural Alertness to Discrimination, and Cultural Endorsement of the Mainstream. Participants are asked to respond to items on a 3-point Likert scale (never, a few times, lots of times). In the current study, the Cultural Pride Reinforcement and Cultural Alertness to Discrimination subscales were utilized to represent racial pride and racial bias.

Psychological outcomes. The Achenbach Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach, 1991) was used to assess caregivers' reports of child behaviors (see Appendix B). On the CBCL, parents report on social skills by listing social activities of children and rate a list of 119 behavior problem items, by indicating the extent to which their child behaves in the manner described by items. The behavior items are rated on a 3-point scale as 0 = not true, 1 = somewhat or sometimes true, or 2 = very true or often

true of his or her child during the past six months. The problem items are grouped into eight subscales and three overall scales. The Withdrawn, Somatic Complaints, Anxious/Depressed subscales create the Internalizing scale. The Delinquent Behavior and Aggressive Behavior subscales create the Externalizing scale. The remaining subscales are the Social Problems, Thought Problems, Attention Problems subscales and are neither internalizing or externalizing. Only the Internalizing and Externalizing scales were utilized in the current study. Higher scores indicate higher levels of these problems. Reliability and validity are well established for the CBCL (Achenbach, 1991).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The results are presented in three steps. First, descriptive information and zero-order correlations used to test the association between parental support, racial socialization, and internalizing and externalizing scores are presented. Second, hierarchical regression analyses used to test the effects of racial socialization above and beyond supportive parenting on child outcomes are presented. Third, hierarchical multiple regression analyses used to test moderating role of racial socialization messages on the association between supportive parenting and outcomes are presented.

Descriptive Analyses and Correlational Analyses

The means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations among Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Parental Support	--	.19	-.13	-.40**	-.23
2. Racial Pride	.39**	--	.50**	- .06	.01
3. Racial Bias	.24*	.59**	--	.07	.07
4. Intern. Behaviors	-.32*	.09	.08	--	.68**
5. Extern. Behaviors	-.38**	-.05	.02	.68**	--
Mean (youth)	58.27	21.51	16.74	15.26	16.67
SD	12.59	5.35	5.21	10.63	10.48
Mean (parent)	61.43	22.96	12.23	6.77	10.12
SD	8.14	3.63	3.36	8.59	10.98

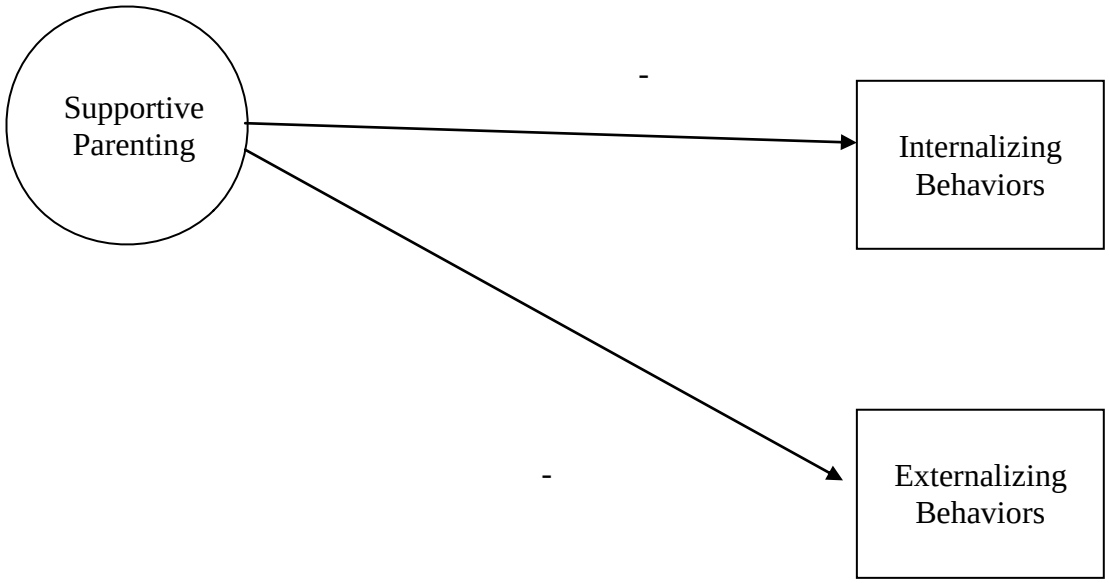
Note. Correlations for parent reports (n = 150) above the diagonal and correlations for youth reports (n = 136) below the diagonal.

*p < .05, **p < .01.

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 stated that parental support would be negatively associated with internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Correlational analyses were conducted for parent reports of the supportive parenting and youth- and parent-reported internalizing and externalizing behaviors (Figure 1). Next, correlational analyses were conducted for youth reports of supportive parenting and the youth- and parent-reported internalizing and externalizing behaviors. As expected, correlational analyses revealed that parent reports of supportive parenting were significantly, negatively associated with both youth and parent reports of internalizing and externalizing behaviors. As expected, correlational analyses revealed that youth reports of supportive parenting were

significantly, negatively associated with both youth and parent reports of internalizing and externalizing behaviors.

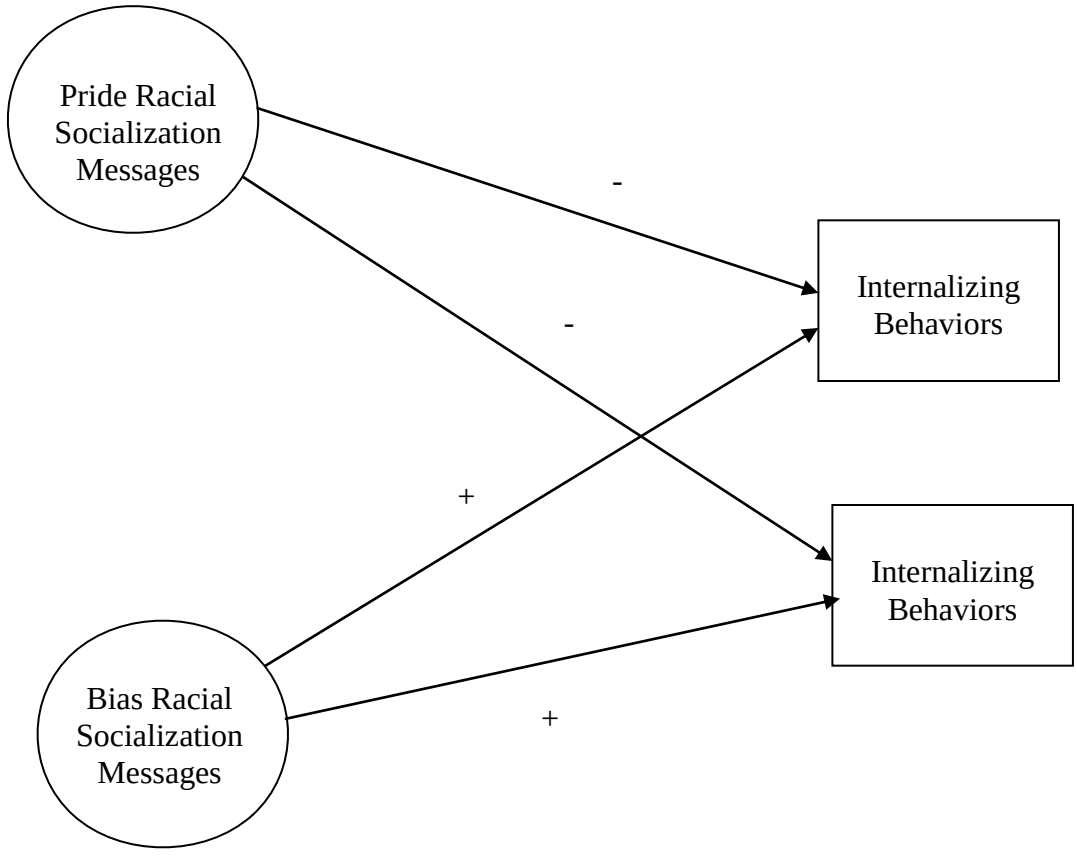
Figure 1. Conceptual Model of Mainstream Parenting Behaviors Predicting Internalizing



Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 states that racial socialization messages emphasizing racial pride would be negatively associated with internalizing and externalizing behaviors, while higher scores on messages emphasizing racial bias would be positively associated with internalizing and externalizing behaviors (Figure 2). To test Hypothesis 2, correlations between parent reports of racial pride and racial bias and the internalizing and externalizing scores were conducted. Next, correlations between youth reports on the proactive and reactive messages of the RBPS with the internalizing and externalizing scales of the CBCL and YSR were conducted. Of note, for the cross-informant analysis the correlations are based on a lower number of participants than the same-informant analysis due to number of participants who completed the study. As expected, parent

reports of racial pride messages were associated with youth reports of internalizing behaviors, but at the trend level (r = .260, p = .08). However, contrary to expectations, this relationship was positive. This relationship was not demonstrated for parent reports of internalizing behaviors or either reports of externalizing behaviors. Inconsistent with predictions, racial bias messages were not significantly negatively associated with outcomes for neither parent nor youth reports.

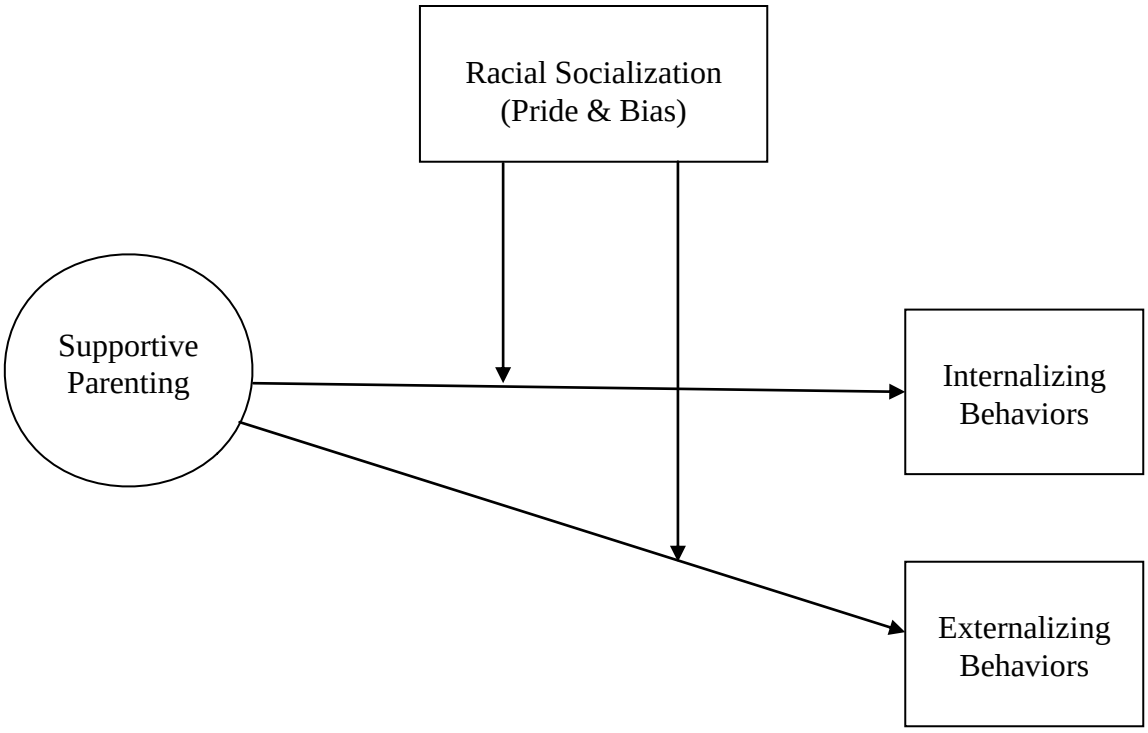
Figure 2. Conceptual Model of Racial Socialization Messages Predicting Internalizing and Externalizing Behaviors.



Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Hypothesis 3. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were used to test Hypothesis 3 which stated that racial socialization scores would add unique variance to internalizing and externalizing behavior scores above and beyond the effects of supportive parenting.

Figure 3. Interaction of racial socialization and mainstream parenting behaviors on internalizing and externalizing behaviors.



Separate hierarchical regression analyses for parent reports of supportive parenting, racial socialization, and outcomes and for youth reports of supportive parenting, racial socialization, and outcomes were conducted. For this analysis, gender

and age were entered in the first step, supportive parenting was entered in the second step, and the racial socialization variables were entered in the third step. The change in R^2 and its statistical significance value from step 2 to step 3 was evaluated to determine if hypothesis 3 was supported. Results for this section are presented in tables 2, 3, & 4. For the cross-informant analyses, the regressions are based on a lower number of participants than the same-informant analyses.

Table 2. Regression Summary Table: Additive Effects of Supportive Parenting and Racial Socialization on Internalizing and Externalizing Behaviors (Parent Report)

Internalizing Behaviors	**B**	**SE B**	***β***		**Externalizing Behavior**	**B**	**SE B**	***β***
Step 1[a]					Step 1[d]			
Age	-1.22	.72	-.20		Age	-1.28	.89	-.17
Gender	.41	2.32	.02		Gender	-1.78	2.86	-.07
Step 2[b]					Step 2[e]			
Support	- .47	.11	- .43**		Support	-.38	.15	-.29*
Step 3[c]					Step 3[f]			
Support	-.49	.13	-.45**		Support	-.46	.17	-.34**
Racial Pride	.12	.33	.05		Racial Pride	.53	.43	.17
Racial Bias	- .05	.36	-.02		Racial Bias	-.38	.48	-.12

Note. [a]R2 = .04, ΔR2= .04; [b]R2 = .23, ΔR2= .19; [c]R2 = .23, ΔR2= .00; [d]R2 = .04, ΔR2= .04; [e]R2 = .12, ΔR2= .08; [f]R2 = .14, ΔR2= .02.

*p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 3. Regression Summary Table: Additive Effects of Supportive Parenting and Racial Socialization on Internalizing and Externalizing Behaviors (Youth Report)

Internalizing Behaviors	**B**	**SE B**	***β***		**Externalizing Behavior**	**B**	**SE B**	***β***
Step 1[a]					Step 1[d]			
Age	-.15	2.08	-.02		Age	-.01	2.24	.00
Gender	-4.62	6.08	-.18		Gender	-.40	6.54	-.02
Step 2[b]					Step 1 [e]			
Support	-.29	.18	-.36		Support	-.40	.18	-.47*
Step 3[c]					Step 2 [f]			
Support	-.43	.19	-.52*		Support	-.51	.20	-.59*
Racial Pride	-.28	.68	-.11		Racial Pride	-.32	.73	-.11
Racial Bias	1.26	.74	.51		Racial Bias	1.02	.78	.39

Note. [a]R2 = .03, ΔR2= .03; [b]R2 = .15, ΔR2= .12; [c]R2 = .30, ΔR2= .14; [d]R2 = .00, ΔR2= .00; [e]R2 = .21, ΔR2= .21; [f]R2 = .29, ΔR2= .08.

*p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 4. Regression Summary Table: Additive Effects of Supportive Parenting and Racial Socialization on Internalizing and Externalizing Behaviors (Cross Informant)

Parent Report Internalizing Behaviors	**B**	**SE B**	***β***		**Parent Report Externalizing Behaviors**	**B**	**SE B**	***β***
Step 1[a]					Step 1[g]			
Age	-.98	.97	-.17		Age	-.16	1.27	-.02
Gender	-.49	3.17	-.03		Gender	-3.22	4.17	-.13
Step 2[b]					Step 2[h]			
Youth Support	-.09	.11	- .14		Youth Support	-.15	.14	-.18
Step 3[c]					Step 3[i]			
Youth Support	-.05	.12	-.07		Youth Support	-.11	.15	-.13
Youth Racial Pride	-.61	.34	-.36		Youth Racial Pride	-.69	.45	-.31
Youth Racial Bias	.48	.35	.27		Youth Racial Bias	.65	.46	.28
Youth Report Internalizing Behaviors	**B**	**SE B**	***β***		**Youth Report Externalizing Behaviors**	**B**	**SE B**	***β***
Step 1[d]					Step 1[j]			
Age	.78	1.80	.08		Age	.69	1.91	.07
Gender	-3.73	4.04	-.17		Gender	-.72	4.29	-.03
Step 2[e]					Step 2[k]			
Parent Support	- .01	.25	-.00		Parent Support	.01	.27	
Step 3[f]					Step 3[l]			
Parent Support	-.36	.27	-.27		Parent Support	-.24	.30	
Parent Racial Pride	1.93	.73	.76*		Parent Racial Pride	1.68	.82	
Parent Racial Bias	-2.56	1.01	-.78*		Parent Racial Bias	-1.73	1.13	

Note. [a]R2 = .03, ΔR2= .03, [b]R2 = .05, ΔR2= .02; [c]R2 = .14, ΔR2= .09; [d]R2 = .04, ΔR2= .04; [e]R2 = .04, ΔR2= .00; [f]R2 = .26, ΔR2= .22; [g]R2 = .052, ΔR2= .03; [h]R2 = .02, ΔR2= .03; [i]R2 = .13, ΔR2= .08; [j]R2 = .01, ΔR2= .01; [k]R2 = .01, ΔR2= .00; [l]R2 = .15, ΔR2= .14

*p<.05. **p<.01.

As expected, parent reports of racial socialization scores added unique variance to youth reports of internalizing behaviors above and beyond the effects of parent reports of supportive parenting (ΔR^2 = .22, F [5, 25] = 1.76, p = .04). Specifically, parent reports of racial pride were positively associated with youth reports of internalizing behavior (β = .76, p = .01) and preparation for racial bias was negatively associated with you reports of internalizing behavior (β = .78, p = .02). Inconsistent with the hypothesis, youth reports of racial socialization did not add unique variance to either youth reports of internalizing behavior (ΔR^2 = .14, F[5, 16] = 1.35, p = .23), youth reports of externalizing behavior (ΔR^2 = .08, F[5,16] = 1.32, p = .43), parent reports of internalizing behavior (ΔR^2 = .09, F[5,33] =1.06, p = .19), or parent reports of externalizing behavior (ΔR^2 = .08, F[5,33] = .94, p = .25), beyond youth reports of supportive parenting. Also, inconsistent with the hypothesis, parent reports of racial socialization did not add unique variance to youth reports of externalizing behavior (ΔR^2 = .14, F[5, 25] = .87, p = .14), parent reports of internalizing behavior (ΔR^2 = .00, F[5,69] = 4.06,p = .93),or parent reports of externalizing behavior (ΔR^2 = .02, F[5,69] = 2.15, p = .48), beyond parent reports of supportive parenting.

Moderation Analyses

Hypothesis 4. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to test hypotheses 4a and 4b, which predicted that racial socialization messages would moderate relations between mainstream parenting and outcomes (Holmbeck, 1997, 2002). Specifically, it was predicted that messages emphasizing racial bias would interact with

supportive parenting to predict higher levels of internalizing and externalizing behavior, whereas messages emphasizing racial pride would interact with support to predict lower levels of internalizing and externalizing behavior. To test hypotheses 4a and 4b, all continuous predictor variables were centered (Aiken & West, 1991). Next, each of the 2 centered mainstream parenting variables (youth-reported support and parent-reported support) was multiplied by each of the 4 racial socialization variables (youth-reported racial bias, parent-reported racial bias, youth-reported racial pride, and youth-reported racial pride) to create appropriate interaction terms. For each model, gender and age were entered in Step 1. In Step 2, the centered mainstream parenting variable of interest and the racial socialization variable of interest were entered. In Step 3, the interaction term created for the mainstream parenting variable and the respective racial socialization variable were entered. Due to the small sample size, four separate sets of analyses were conducted in order to maximize power: one set for parent-reported predictors and outcomes, another for youth-reported predictors and outcomes, one for parent-reported predictors and youth-reported outcomes, and one for youth-reported predictors and parent-reported outcomes. For the cross-informant analyses, the regressions are based on a lower number of participants than the same-informant analyses. Further, these models included one mainstream parenting variable and one racial socialization variable per model (e.g., parent-reported support and parent-reported bias messages) resulting in 16 regression models. For significant interaction terms, post-hoc analyses were conducted to determine the simple effects contributing to the interaction term (Aiken & West, 1991;

Holmbeck G. N., 1997). Results are presented in tables 5, 6, & & 7.

Table 5. Regression Summary Table: Interactive Effects between Supportive Parenting and Racial Pride and Supportive Parenting and Racial Bias on Internalizing and Externalizing Behaviors (Parent Report)

Internalizing Behaviors	**B**	**SE B**	**β**		**Externalizing Behaviors**	**B**	**SE B**	**β**
Support	-.48	.11	-.44**		Support	-.41	.14	-.30**
Racial Pride	.03	.25	.01		Racial Pride	.24	.33	.08
Support X Racial Pride [a]	.19	.05	.39**		Support X Racial Pride [c]	.24	.06	.39**
Support	-.48	.12	-.43**		Support	-.40	.15	-.29*
Racial Bias	.03	.30	.01		Racial Bias	-.05	.39	-.02
Support X Racial Bias [b]	.00	.04	.00		Support X Racial Bias [d]	.05	.05	.12

Note. [a]R2 = .18; [b]R2 = .23; [c]R2 = .28; [d]R2 = .13.

*p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 6. Regression Summary Table: Interactive Effects between Supportive Parenting and Racial Pride and Supportive Parenting and Racial Bias on Internalizing and Externalizing Behaviors (Youth Report)

Internalizing Behaviors	**B**	**SE B**	**β**		**Externalizing Behaviors**	**B**	**SE B**	**β**
Support	-.21	.19	-.26		Support	-.29	.19	-.33
Racial Pride	.46	.60	.17		Racial Pride	.35	.59	.13
Support X Racial Pride [a]	-.08	.05	-.38		Support X Racial Pride [c]	-.11	.05	-.47*
Support	-.43	.19	-.53*		Support	-.51	.20	-.59*
Racial Bias	.97	.75	.39		Racial Bias	.82	.81	.31
Support X Racial Bias [b]	.02	.05	.10		Support X Racial Bias [d]	.00	.06	.02

Note. [a]R2 = .28; [b]R2 = .29; [c]R2 = .39; [d]R2 = .28.

*p<.05. **p<.01.

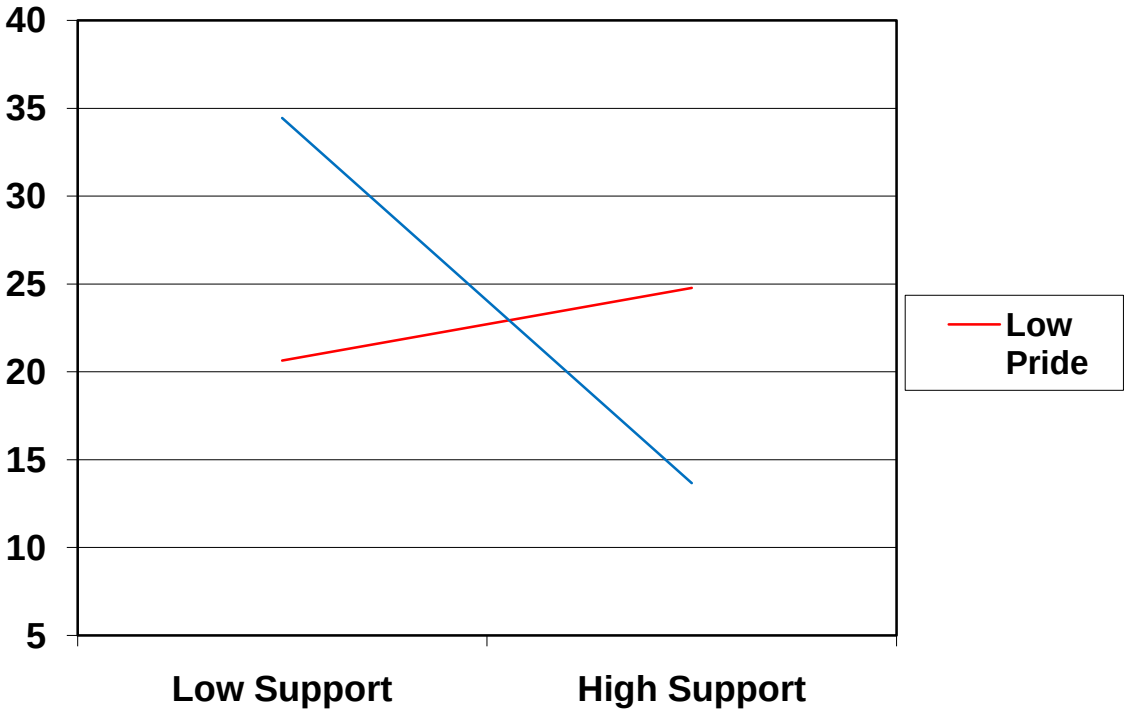
Table 7. Regression Summary Table: Interactive Effects between Supportive Parenting and Racial Pride and Supportive Parenting and Racial Bias on Internalizing and Externalizing Behaviors (Cross Informant)

	B	**SE B**	**β**		**B**	**SE B**	**β**
Parent Report Internalizing Behaviors				**Parent Report Externalizing Behaviors**			
Youth Support	.00	.12	.00	Youth Support	-.05	.16	-.06
Youth Racial Pride	-.29	.32	.17	Youth Racial	-.27	.42	-.12
Support X Racial	-.03	.03	-.21	Support X Racial	-.04	.04	-.18
Youth Support	-.11	.12	.17	Youth Support	-.18	.15	-.21
Youth Racial Bias	.28	.36	.16	Youth Racial Bias	.42	.46	.18
Support X Racial	-.02	.03	-.13	Support X Racial	-.02	.04	-.10
Youth Report Internalizing				**Youth Report Externalizing**			
Parent Support	.-.04	.25	.03	Parent Support	-.03	.27	-.02
Parent Racial Pride	.39	.52	.15	Parent Racial	.63	.55	.24
Support X Racial	.11	.11	.19	Support X Racial	.07	.12	.12
Parent Support	.05	.31	.04	Parent Support	.13	.34	.09
Parent Racial Bias	-.53	.72	.16	Parent Racial	.03	.77	.01
Support X Racial	-.10	.14	-.17	Support X Racial	-.10	.15	-.16

Note. [a]R2 = .12; [b]R2 = .07; [c]R2 = .11; [d]R2 = .07; [e]R2 = .10; [f]R2 = .07; [g]R2 = .08; [h]R2 = .02. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Interaction between racial pride and supportive parenting predicting internalizing behavior. As predicted, results indicated a significant interaction between parent reports of racial pride and supportive parenting predicting parent reports of internalizing behaviors (ß = .39, *p* = .00). However, post-hoc analyses were not significant. See Figure 4.

Figure 4. Predicting internalizing behaviors from parent reports of supportive parenting and racial pride



For youth reports of racial pride and supportive predicting youth reports of internalizing behaviors, there was no significant interaction (ß = -.38, *p* = .84). For youth reports of racial pride and supportive parenting predicting parent reports of internalizing behaviors there was no significant interaction (ß = -.21, *p* = .28). Finally, for parent reports of racial pride and supportive parenting predicting youth reports of internalizing

behaviors, there was no significant interaction (ß = .19, p = .33).

Interaction between racial pride and supportive parenting predicting externalizing behavior. As expected, there was a significant interaction between parent reports of supportive parenting and racial pride messages in the prediction of parent reports of externalizing behaviors (ß = .39, p = .00). Post hoc regression analyses revealed that, at the trend level, high levels of support predicted increased externalizing behaviors when racial pride was high (t = 1.73, p =.09). In contrast, high levels of support predicted decreased externalizing behaviors when racial pride was moderate (t = -2.88, p < .01). See Figure 5. Also, analyses revealed a significant interaction between youth reports of supportive parenting and racial pride messages at the trend level in the prediction of youth reports of externalizing behaviors (ß = -.47, p = .05). Post hoc regression analyses revealed that high levels of support predicted decreased externalizing behaviors when racial pride was high (t = -2.91, p < .01). See Figure 6. For youth reports of racial pride and supportive parenting predicting parent reports of externalizing behaviors, there was no significant interaction (ß = -.18, p = .35). For parent reports of racial pride and supportive parenting predicting youth reports of externalizing behaviors there was also no significant interaction (ß = .12, p = .54).

Figure 5. Predicting externalizing behaviors from parent reports of supportive parenting and racial pride.

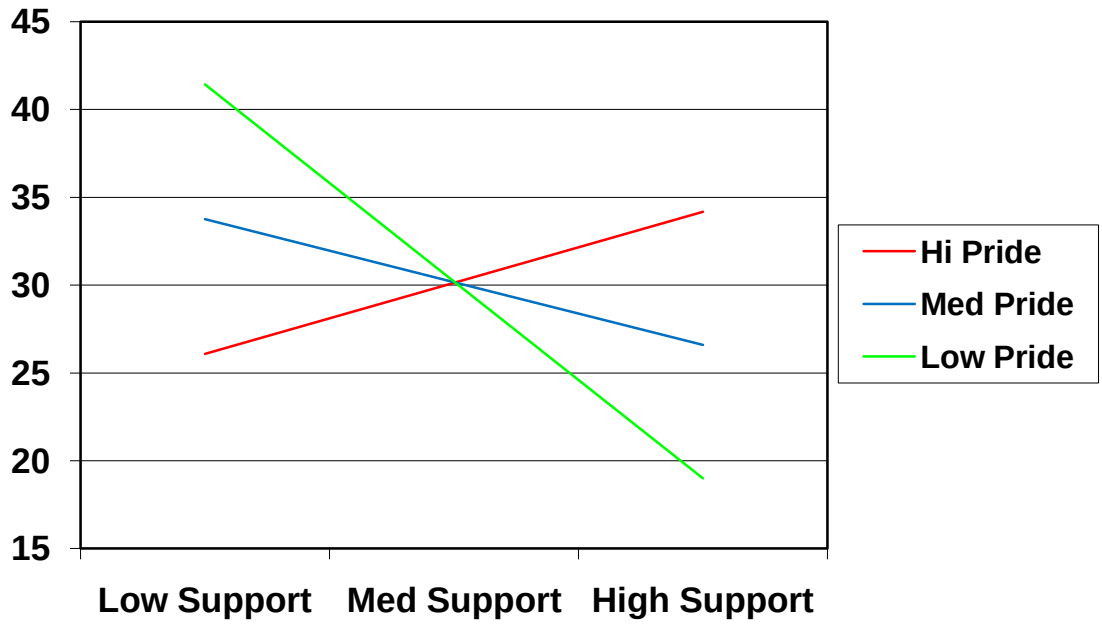
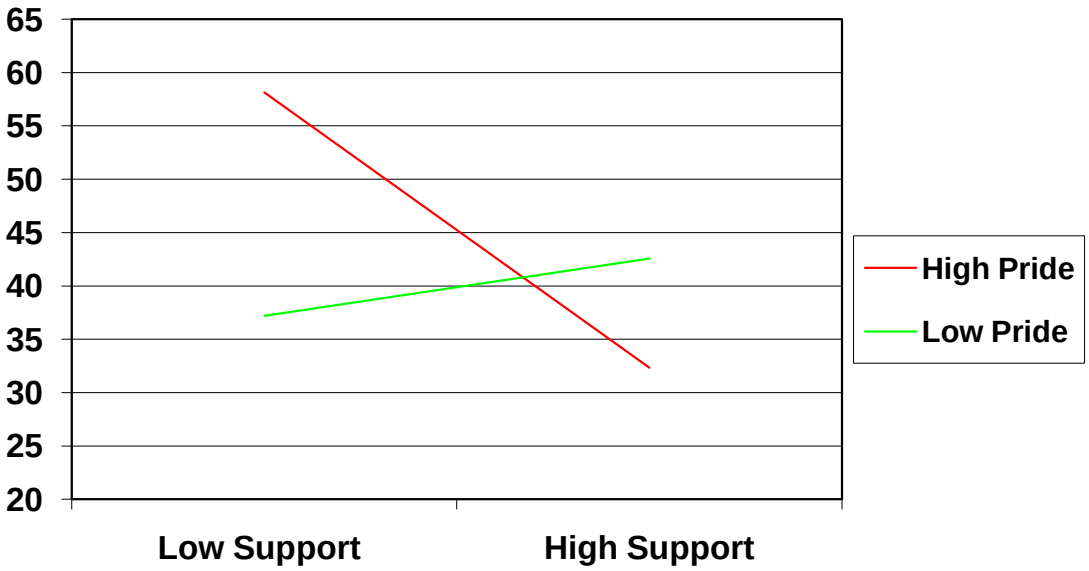


Figure 6. Predicting externalizing behaviors from child reports of supportive parenting and racial pride.



Interaction between racial bias and supportive parenting predicting internalizing behavior. For youth reports of racial bias and supportive parenting predicting youth reports of internalizing behaviors the interaction term was not significant (ß = .10, *p* = .73). However, there was a significant main effect for youth reports of supportive parenting predicting youth reports of internalizing behavior. Specifically, there was a negative association between supportive parenting and internalizing behaviors (ß = -.53, *p* = .04). For youth reports of racial bias and supportive parenting predicting parent reports of internalizing behaviors there was no significant interaction (ß = -.13, *p* = .52).

For parent reports of racial bias and supportive parenting predicting parent reports of internalizing behaviors, while the interaction term was not significant (ß = .00, *p* = .97), there was a significant main effect for parent-reported supportive parenting predicting parent-reported internalizing behaviors. Specifically, there was a negative association between supportive parenting and internalizing behaviors (ß = -.43, *p* = .00). For parent reports of racial bias and supportive parenting predicting youth reports of internalizing behaviors there was also no significant interaction (ß = -.17, *p* = .49).

Interaction between racial bias and supportive parenting predicting externalizing behavior. For youth reports of racial bias and supportive predicting youth reports of externalizing behaviors, the interaction term was not significant (ß = .02, *p* = .95). However, there was a significant main effect of youth reported supportive parenting predicting youth reports of externalizing behaviors. Specifically, there was a negative association between supportive parenting and externalizing behaviors (ß = -.59, *p* = .02).

For youth reports of racial bias and supportive parenting predicting parent reports of externalizing behaviors there was no significant interaction (ß = -.10, *p* = .60). For parent reports of racial bias and supportive parenting predicting parent reports of externalizing behaviors there was also no significant interaction (ß = .12, *p* = .28). There was, however, a significant main effect for parents reports of supportive parenting predicting parent reports of externalizing behaviors (ß = -.29, *p* = .01). For parent reports of racial bias and supportive parenting predicting youth reports of externalizing behaviors there was no significant interaction (ß = -.16, *p* = .52).

In sum, parent reports of supportive parenting and racial pride interacted significantly to predict parent reports of both internalizing and externalizing behaviors. There was trend in the interaction between youth reports of supportive parenting and racial pride predicting their reports of internalizing behaviors only.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The identification of models of African-American development and functioning which incorporate mainstream, as well as culturally-specific practices, is an important task for family researchers. The current study examined parenting practices in African-American families and asserts that culturally-relevant parenting practices, such as racial socialization, are best examined in the context of practices that are helpful to all parents (e.g. parental support). Specifically, the current study proposed to examine the additive effects of racial socialization to the effects of supportive parenting on African American youth's internalizing and externalizing behaviors, as well as the interactive effects of racial socialization and supportive parenting on youth's internalizing and externalizing behaviors. As expected, more supportive parenting behaviors were associated with fewer internalizing and externalizing behaviors. This was true for both parent and youth reporters. Next, the associations of racial pride and racial bias messages to internalizing and externalizing behaviors were examined. As expected, racial pride showed a trend towards an association with internalizing behaviors. However, the direction of this relationship was positive, suggesting that when parents utilized more racial pride messages, there were more reports of more internalizing behaviors, not less. Inconsistent with hypotheses, racial bias messages were not associated with outcomes by either reporter.

Consistent with predictions, racial socialization showed additive effects on outcomes when examined with supportive parenting, underscoring the importance of racial socialization. Specifically, racial pride and racial bias added unique variance to internalizing scores above the effects of parental support. Interestingly, the specific direction of these relationships was contrary to what we expected. Racial pride was positively associated with internalizing behaviors, whereas racial bias was negatively associated with internalizing behaviors. Inconsistent with predictions, there were no significant additive effects associated with externalizing behaviors.

When investigating the interaction between specific racial socialization messages and supportive parenting we found that, for both reporters, racial pride and supportive parenting interacted to predict externalizing behaviors. For parent reports, at high levels of parental support, when racial pride was high, there were increased externalizing behaviors. Conversely, for youth reports, high levels of parental support and racial pride were associated with decreased externalizing behaviors. Racial pride also interacted with supportive parenting to predict internalizing behaviors, but the post-hoc analyses were not significant. Thus, the nature of this relationship remains unclear. Contrary to hypotheses, racial bias messages did not interact with supportive parenting to predict either internalizing or externalizing behaviors.

The Importance of Parental Support

The finding that parental support was negatively associated with both internalizing and externalizing behaviors supports previous research, which demonstrates

the salience of supportive parenting for youth's psychosocial functioning (Koblinsky, Kulvanka, & Randolph, 2006; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Petit, Bates, & Dodge, 1997). Indeed, resilience research has consistently identified a close, supportive relationship with a parent as a vital protective factor for youth at-risk for psychopathology (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). As mentioned previously, supportive parenting is positively associated with a variety of favorable outcomes, including educational attainment and self-esteem (Dekovic & Meeus, 1997; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989). Also, supportive parenting is negatively associated with maladaptive outcomes such as social skill deficits, aggression, depression, and anxiety (McCabe, Clark, & Barnett, 1999; Stice, Ragan, & Randall, 2004). Because low-income, African-American youth are at-risk for chronic life stressors such as exposure to violence, poverty, and racism, it is very important to identify factors that are associated with adaptive outcomes. Our findings support previous research suggesting that supportive parenting may be protective against negative outcomes for which this population is at-risk.

Parental support may lead to more adaptive outcomes by giving youth an internal representation of acceptance, which helps them feel comfortable in the parent-child relationship and form secure attachments (Cassidy, 1999; Sarason, Pierce, & Sarason, 1990). In attachment theory, the internal working model is the internalized representation of the attachment bond (Cassidy, 1999). It is based on past experiences in social interactions with familiar people. The internal working model creates one's expectation of relationships, how they believe people will behave towards them, and how they should

behave towards others (Bretherton & Munholland, 1999). As children are supported, they are more likely to have a positive self-image which buffers them against internalizing and externalizing behaviors or other negative outcomes (McNeely & Barber, 2010).

Also, consistent with the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), as parents model behaviors that people value (support and warmth), children may reenact these same behaviors with others, providing them more favorable responses from others (Andrews, Hops, & Duncan, 1997; Brook, Whiteman, Gordon, & Cohen, 1986; McNeely & Barber, 2010). Successful interpersonal interactions and relationships with others may result in fewer emotional and behavioral problems. In comparison to other groups, African-American youth in under-resourced communities may not be able to receive as much instrumental and emotional support from others in their social support networks due to the taxing nature of stressors in the community. Thus, receiving supportive behaviors from their parents may be especially imperative to their psychosocial functioning (Grant et al., 2000; McNeely & Barber, 2010; Zimmerman et al., 2000).

Although some research shows that the practices that are viewed as supportive may be different for African-American youth than they are for White youth (Jackson-Newsom et al., 2008), our study utilized a measure which has been normed on both ethnic minority and majority participants and found that the behaviors noted as support, such as playfulness, acceptance, empathy, and involvement, held true for this low-income, African-American sample (Shelton, Frick, & Wootton, 1996). Again, the

negative associations between supportive parenting and symptoms were demonstrated for both parent and child reports of supportive parenting, highlighting the robust nature of this finding.

The Role of Racial Socialization

Socializing one's children to their own race is a task that African-American parents use to rear healthy children in a context of discrimination and oppression. Research has shown that racial discrimination can have deleterious psychological effects (Broman, 1997; Gaylord-Harden & Cunningham, 2009; Klonoff, Landrine, & Ullman, 1999), and racial socialization is associated with buffering against some of these negative outcomes. Findings on the consistency of this buffering effect and the conditions under which it occurs have been mixed. This study sought to further explore these relationships through examining various models, including a direct model, an additive model, and an interactive model.

Direct effects of racial socialization. The findings for the role of racial socialization were mixed. As mentioned above, there was a trend for the association between parent reports of racial pride and internalizing behaviors; however, this association was positive, so that the more racial pride messages parents reported giving, the more internalizing behaviors youth reported. One explanation for the unexpected direction may lie in the reciprocal nature of family dynamics. Specifically, the parts of the family system are "interrelated and mutually enforcing" so that they may reciprocally influence each other (Lawton, Silverstein, & Bengtson, 1994). Although the current

study is based upon the assumption that racial socialization messages impact youth outcomes, it is plausible that youth behavior affects parental socialization behavior. In this case, youth who show more depressive symptoms, may elicit more messages of pride from their parents, as parents attempt to boost their self-esteem and improve their mood. Interestingly, this finding occurred in the cross-reporter analysis (i.e., parent report of socialization predicting child report of internalizing behavior). However, research shows that youth are better reporters of their internalizing behaviors than their parents (Grills & Ollendick, 2002). Thus, the youth reports may be accurate reports of the levels of depression and anxiety symptoms experienced in this sample. If the above assertion regarding the reciprocal association between racial socialization and internalizing behaviors is true, parents may be responding to internalizing behavior that is not reflected in their report of the behavior.

Another conceptual explanation for the unexpected findings for racial pride may be found in theoretical models of group identity. For example, Cross' model of Nigrescence (1978) describes how blacks develop their racial group identity through their experiences with the outside world. The first stage, the pre-encounter stage, occurs when race is of low salience to them. The social identity of people in this stage is related to their sense of being an American and an individual, rather than a member of the larger Black community. Because of these feelings, they may either try to assimilate into the dominant culture without necessarily connecting to the Black community or may have a low view of the African-American culture as well as of themselves (Carter R. T., 1991;

Cross, 1971; Parham & Helms, 1985). The next stage, the immersion-emersion stage is characterized by an intense period of transition from the identity of the previous stage. In the immersion phase of this stage, Blacks may become immersed in Black culture and despise anything "not Black." The impetus for this stage is usually an experience with racial discrimination, and, thus, a person in this stage tends to have strong feelings of rage towards Whites and White culture. Individuals at this stage are very insecure in their conversion to Black identity, and this stage can be related to anxiety, anger, and guilt as a result of an oversimplification of race relations and racially-linked experiences (Cross, 1991). The last stage is the internalization stage which may manifest in several ways. Ultimately in this stage people are able to find balance in an empowering view of their own race and knowledge of discrimination that may occur as a member, while appreciating other races. They are able to merge several identities together to gather a more encompassing view of self rather than just focusing on their racial identity. This stage is associated with high self-esteem and security in their identity (Vandiver et al., 2001).

As discussed in Cross' immersion-emersion stage (1971; 1991), as one becomes largely immersed in Black culture, they may experience some negative emotional outcomes, as a result of rage towards Whites and racism. Thus, some parents who are engrossed in Black culture to the extreme of despising non-Black culture may be inadvertently conveying their attitudes to their children through very high levels of racial pride messages. Indeed, research has shown that parents' racial socialization efforts are

tied to their levels of racial identity (Hughes et al., 2006). Thus, these youth may also begin to loathe anything that is not related to Black culture, and as a result of their parents' rigidity and experiences with racial discrimination, they may begin to experience heightened levels of anxiety, anger, or depression. This is not to say that parents should not provide any racial socialization messages, as having no awareness or interest in Black culture may lead to feelings of self-hatred (Vandiver et al., 2001). Further, consistent with the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), group membership may lead to higher self-esteem, unity, and feelings of pride. However, our findings may suggest that very high levels of racial pride may be less adaptive than more moderate levels, but additional research is warranted to identify the levels at which racial pride messages are the most adaptive.

Another conceptual explanation may come from the literature on the effects of child age on racial socialization messages. Specifically, racial bias messages tend to be given when youth are older, as parents often believe that middle and older adolescents possess the cognitive skills to adequately process experiences and subsequent discussions of racial bias (Hughes et al., 2006). In contrast, children in middle childhood are more likely to receive more racial pride messages from their parents, as parents deem these messages more developmentally-appropriate (Hughes et al., 2006). Perhaps, higher levels of racial pride may inadvertently lead to a greater awareness of racial discrimination. The average age of the youth in our sample was 11. Both parent and child mean scores of racial pride messages were higher than the means for racial bias. If

youth at this age are receiving more racial pride messages, which may heighten awareness of racial discrimination, and fewer racial bias messages, they may be more aware of racial discrimination, but less prepared to understand and respond to these experiences, leading to feelings of anxiety and depression. The internalization stage of Cross' model, which is associated with the most favorable outcomes, incorporates not only knowledge about culture and the reality of racial discrimination, but also how to deal with it, which one can receive from racial bias messages. Perhaps viewing these constructs (i.e., racial bias and racial pride) in tandem rather than separately would provide a clearer picture of the benefits of racial socialization.

Additive effects of racial socialization. As predicted, we were able to find evidence supporting a compensatory model of the combined effect of racial socialization and supportive parenting. Results indicated that racial socialization showed an additive effect above the effect of supportive parenting in the prediction of outcomes. Specifically, parent reports of racial socialization predicted youth reports of internalizing behaviors beyond the effects of supportive parenting. Therefore, racial socialization, a culturally-specific parenting strategy, accounted for additional variance than what supportive parenting, a mainstream parenting behavior, could account for alone when youth self-reported internalizing behaviors. This finding emphasizes the importance of racial socialization for African American youth. Supportive parenting behaviors have already been shown to already be one of the most influential parenting strategies for youth across demographics. In African-American youth, particularly, racial socialization

goes beyond what is conceptualized as warm and accepting parenting to add something unique and distinctive.

Ogbu's cultural-ecological model (1981) states that parenting practices are best understood in the cultural context in which they occur. Therefore, it is crucial when studying parenting practices for a specific cultural group to discover the cultural aspects of parenting which contribute to the prediction of outcomes, particularly more favorable outcomes. Our findings show that racial socialization is indeed one of these culturally-relevant strategies that impacts youth outcomes even above traditional methods of parenting. Due to the unique stressors associated with being raised in an underrepresented population in the United States, the literature stresses that African American parents must also use parenting strategies, such as racial socialization, to enhance the level of parental support for their children (Hughes, Rodriguez, Smith, Johnson, Stevenson, & Spicer, 2006; Stevenson, Reed, Bodison, & Bishop, 1997; Ward, 2000). Racial socialization may be used by parents to encourage the development of positive racial identity and self-esteem, which have been shown to buffer against racially-linked stressors such as discrimination (Chatman, Eccles, & Malanchuk, 2005; Oyserman, Harrison, & Bybee, 2001).

It should be noted that, in these analyses, we again found results in the opposite direction as what would be expected by the literature. Racial pride was associated with increased internalizing behaviors, while racial bias messages were associated with decreased internalizing behaviors. This may be because preparing youth for racial

discrimination decreases anxiety and depression. This pattern is similar to the results of Hypothesis 2 where racial pride messages were positively associated with internalizing behaviors.

Interactive effects of racial socialization. Our moderation analyses, which were utilized to determine if and how racial socialization interacts with supportive parenting to buffer against negative outcomes, also suggest that the level of racial socialization is critical. When racial pride messages interacted with supportive parenting, they significantly predicted externalizing behaviors. This was true for both child and parents reporters although the direction of this relationship differed among reporters. According to parents, when they were supportive and provided high levels of racial pride messages, children showed more externalizing behaviors. In other words, the association between supportive parenting and externalizing behavior was positive when the level of racial pride messages was high. However, when parents provided moderate levels of racial pride messages, children experienced less externalizing behaviors. Specifically, the association between supportive parenting and externalizing behavior was negative when the level of racial pride was moderate.

These findings support our previous assertion that high levels of racial pride may be detrimental, while moderate levels may be most adaptive. As demonstrated in the direct and compensatory models above, high levels, versus moderate levels, of racial pride may be detrimental for children because they heighten awareness of racial discrimination for an age group who may not be adequately prepared to process these

experiences. Further, high levels of racial pride may be reflective of parents who are immersed in Black culture and are themselves experiencing anxiety and insecurity in their identity. Parents may use very high levels of racial pride messages to compensate for this insecurity.

On the other hand, children reported that when parents provided high levels of support and high levels of racial pride messages, they experience fewer externalizing behaviors. Specifically, for child reports, the association between supportive parenting and externalizing behavior was negative when racial pride was high, which differs from findings with parent reports. Although the findings support our expectation that parental support and racial socialization would interact with one another, the opposite findings for parent reports versus child reports warrant further discussion. Parent reports of these constructs may reflect reciprocal associations between these variables. Specifically, parents who perceive their children as showing more externalizing behaviors may respond by trying to be more supportive and instill more racial pride in their children.

The difference in findings also suggests that reports of racial socialization may be "tapping into" something different for parents versus children. An examination of the intercorrelations among study variables demonstrates that the association between children's reports of racial pride and racial bias messages were *not* significantly associated with parents' reports of racial pride and racial bias messages. Further, youth reports of parental support were significantly, positively associated with youth reports of racial pride and racial bias; whereas parents' self-reports of parental support were

significantly, positively associated with racial pride, but were not associated with racial bias. Although the difference between the two correlation coefficients was not significantly different, the association between child reports of support and youth reports of racial pride was a medium effect, while the association between parent reports of support and parent reports of racial pride was a small effect. In sum, youth reports of racial socialization are not associated with parent reports of racial socialization, and youth reports of racial socialization are more strongly and consistently associated with supportive parents. Thus, youth reports of racial socialization may also be "tapping into" or be reflective of their perceptions of parents' support and acceptance. In order to provide racial socialization messages successfully, parents must be responsive to their children's needs (Friend, 2009), as aspect of parental support. Although the specific racial messages presented by parents are important for youth outcomes, the involvement and responsiveness associated with giving these messages may drive the inverse association between racial pride and externalizing behaviors for youth perceptions.

In addition, supplemental item analysis for items on the racial socialization measures demonstrated that the items which measured racial pride differed slightly between the parent and youth measures. Both instruments measured racial pride as discussed by the literature, but the parent measure also included a few items that may reflect another component of racial socialization: egalitarianism. Some of these items included "If you work hard you can overcome barriers in life" and "Education is the best way to get ahead." This difference in the items on the measures may account for the

different direction of findings for parent and youth reports. Research shows that the promotion of egalitarian messages is common across all ethnic groups. These messages stress hard work, virtue, self-acceptance and equality (Hughes et al., 2006). It may be that egalitarian messages are more likely to be related to poorer outcomes because they emphasize "color-blindness" in a world where there are distinctive differences in the treatment of Blacks and Whites. The African American child who works hard and has a solid educational background may still experience discrimination which poses an obstacle to his/her success (Bowman & Howard, 1985).

For parent reports of internalizing behaviors, a different relationship was found where racial pride and supportive parenting interacted to predict more internalizing behaviors; however, the follow-up tests were not significant. Thus, the nature of this association remains unclear from our analyses. It should also be noted that there were more significant interactions for externalizing behaviors than for internalizing behaviors. Specifically, the effect of supportive parenting on externalizing behaviors was contingent upon levels of racial socialization, while this was not the case for internalizing behaviors. Racial socialization messages which do not include an emphasis on how to cope with discrimination may be more related to externalizing behaviors. This is because racial discrimination experiences tend to be more strongly associated with anger, and when anger is expressed it can lead to externalizing behaviors (Stevenson, 1995). In sum, it seems that the conditions upon which racial pride messages are most adaptive are when they are given at moderate levels under high levels of support.

Strengths and Limitations

There are limitations of the current study that warrant attention. One limitation is the age range of the children who were included in the current sample. Youth in this sample were from ages 9-15. These ages represent several developmental stages which may affect how youth perceive their parents' behaviors and how they respond to them. As children enter adolescence, race and ethnicity tends to become more salient to their identity (Phinney, 1990). Also, the messages parents provide their children differ as children develop (Hughes et al., 2006). Therefore, given the wide variability in age of the youth who comprised this sample, it may have been difficult to fully capture the occurring processes of racial discrimination. Further, the sample size was too small to make comparison between age groups. Along these lines, another limitation of the current study was the small sample size. In community-based research, especially research that attempts to obtain information from multiple individuals in families, it often difficult to find families who are willing to participate and who provide complete data for parents and children. Further, the families in the study were from under-resourced communities and were likely experiencing multiple stressors that impeded participation and completion of measures. The smaller sample size may have detracted from some of the statistical power of our study. Also, the study could have benefited from more child-parent participant matches. More matches may have provided us with important information about within-group differences. Additionally, this sample can only be generalized to African-American families from low-income communities and should not

be used to be representative of all African-American families. Finally, the current study is comprised of mostly maternal parent reporters, future research should consider differences that may occur with fathers.

Despite the limitations, the current study has several strengths. First, research often fails to use both parent and youth data. The current study used both parent and youth reports of all key variables, therefore, we were able to examine how the inclusion of multiple reporters provides may impact the associations between these variables. The use of multiple informants enabled a comparison of results when using parent or child reports. Similarities between reporters suggested especially robust findings, whereas differences raise considerations for choice of informants in this area of study. This study was also compelling in that it integrated both mainstream and culturally-specific strategies to provide a more holistic approach to parenting of African-American youth who are both Black and American. Models for the development of our target population often fall short in examining African-American behavior in a more mainstream context. Our study showed that while strategies that were important to all children were salient to this population, their importance depended on the use of culturally specific strategies. Third, our study examined two models of development, both an additive and an integrative model, which provided us with specific information about the relationship of these variables to each other and to our outcomes. Finally, this study extended previous research by taking a more detailed look at how racial socialization methods affect children by separating the process by two types of messages, giving us a more nuanced

understanding about what specific aspects of racial socialization are important in what context (i.e., nature of parental support) for which child problems.

Implications for Future Research

The current study suggests that racial socialization messages contribute to internalizing and externalizing behaviors only in the context of a supportive parenting environment. Prevention and intervention programs aimed at targeting these outcomes may benefit from focusing on increasing parents' levels of warmth and acceptance towards their children, as well as psychoeducation around which racial socialization messages are best understood and internalized for children. Research should continue to try to distinguish which racial socialization messages in what contexts are most advantageous to youth psychosocial functioning. Future research may also benefit from exploring other outcomes (i.e., academic attainment, psychosocial functioning, substance usage) which are positively influenced by racial socialization and supportive parenting. Also, the way that youth perceive their parents' strategies is important for how protective these parenting strategies actually are. Additionally, some considerations for future research are including parental levels of racial identity as the literature has shown this be an influence in how they practice racial socialization with their children. Last, the inclusion of more fathers in this line of research would provide valuable information that is currently unavailable in the literature base.

Summary and Conclusion

In sum, low-income African-American children are exposed to a range of

stressors including poverty, violence, and racial discrimination. The family environment has been shown in many cases to act as a buffer between these stressors and adverse outcomes. Examining models of parenting which include both mainstream and culturally-specific parenting strategies may produce a more comprehensive model of best parenting practices for this population. The current study points to the positive effects of supportive parenting on youth behavioral and emotional functioning. The direct effects of racial socialization for this age group are not promising. However, when racial socialization interacts with supportive parenting, the effects are more encouraging and provide an interesting pattern of findings. Therefore, previously held notions of the benefits of racial socialization may only be relevant in a supportive and nurturing parenting environment. Interestingly, parents and youth have different ideas on how these parenting strategies affect the youth. Helping parents to adjust their behaviors to be better understood and received by their children will ensure that these important strategies are utilized at their best potential. The role of racial socialization in protecting against negative outcomes should continue to be explored in among African-American youth.

APPENDIX A

YOUTH MEASURES

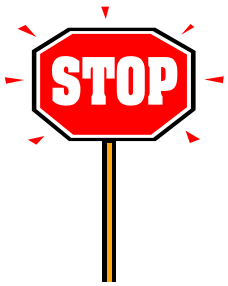
The University of New Orleans
Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ)
(Child Form)

Instructions: The following are a number of statements about your family. Please rate each item as to how often it USUALLY occurs or has occurred in your home during the past year. The possible answers are Never (1), Almost Never (2), Sometimes (3), Often (4), Always (5).

		Never	Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Always
1.	You have a friendly talk with your parent.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Your parent(s) tell you that you are doing a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Your parent(s) threaten to punish you and then do not do it.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Your parent helps with some of your special activities (such as sports, boy/girl scouts, church youth groups).	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Your parent(s) reward or give something extra to you for behaving well.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	You fail to leave a note or let your parent(s) know where you are going.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	You play games or do other fun things with your parent.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	You talk your parent(s) out of punishing you after you have done something wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Your parent asks you about your day in school.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	You stay out in the evening past the time you are supposed to be home.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Your parent helps you with your homework.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Your parent(s) give up trying to get	1	2	3	4	5

		Never	Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Always
	you to obey them because it's too much trouble.					
13.	Your parent(s) compliment you when you have done something well.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Your parent asks you what your plans are for the coming day.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Your parent drives you to a special activity.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Your parent(s) praise you for behaving well.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Your parents do no know the friends you are with.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Your parent(s) hug or kiss you at least once a day.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	You go out without a set time to be home.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Your parent talks to you about your friends.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	You go out after dark without an adult with you.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Your parent(s) let you out of a punishment early (like lift restrictions earlier than they originally said).	1	2	3	4	5
23.	You help plan family activities.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Your parent(s) get so busy that they forget where you are and what you are doing.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Your parent(s) do not punish you when you have done something wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Your parent goes to a meeting at school, like a PTA meeting or parent/teacher conference.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Your parent(s) tell you that they like it when you help out around the house.	1	2	3	4	5

		Never	Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Always
28.	You stay out later than you are supposed to and your parent(s) don't know it.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Your parent(s) leave the house and don't tell you where they are going.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	You come home from school more than an hour past the time your parents expect you to be home, and they do not respond.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	The punishment your parent(s) give depends on their mood.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	You are at home without an adult being with you.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	You can count on your parent(s) paying attention to you, regardless of what you are doing.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Your parent(s) take away a privilege or money from you as a punishment.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Your parent(s) send you to your room as punishment.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Your parent(s) yell or scream at you when you have done something wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Your parent(s) calmly explain to you why your behavior was wrong after you misbehave.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Your parent(s) use time out (makes you sit or stand in a corner) as a punishment.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Your parent(s) give you extra chores as a punishment.	1	2	3	4	5



RBPS

ID # _____

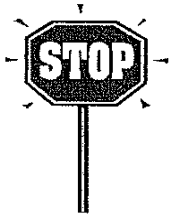
Date _____

Please circle the number that corresponds to how often, if ever, any of your parents or primary caregivers said any of the following statements to you now or when you were younger.

	Never	A Few Times	A Lot
1. Our race is capable of succeeding in anything.	1	2	3
2. All races are equal.	1	2	3
3. Racism and discrimination will affect every aspect of your life.	1	2	3
4. If you work hard, you can overcome racism.	1	2	3
5. Racism and discrimination will be the hardest things for you to face.	1	2	3
6. You should be proud to be of your race.	1	2	3
7. You need to learn to get along with other races.	1	2	3
8. Other races can learn much from our race.	1	2	3
9. American society is fair to all races.	1	2	3
10. Learning about your race is an important part of your identity.	1	2	3
11. Your race will not really affect your success in life.	1	2	3
12. Going to school with children of your race will make you feel good about yourself.	1	2	3
13. You can succeed just as easily as someone from another race.	1	2	3
14. Children of other races may exclude you from their social activities because of your race.	1	2	3
15. You have to work twice as hard as children of other races to get ahead in this world.	1	2	3
16. Your race will not affect your opportunities in jobs or education.	1	2	3
17. Racism and discrimination will not be the hardest things for you to face.	1	2	3
18. Going to school with children of other races will make you feel good about yourself.	1	2	3
19. You may have hard times being accepted in society because of your race.	1	2	3
20. Too much talk about racism will keep you from reaching your goals in your life.	1	2	3
21. American society is unfair to people of our race.	1	2	3
22. You should participate in events involving [or related to] your racial background.	1	2	3
23. Racism may hinder your success in life.	1	2	3
24. More job opportunities would be open to you if other people were not racist.	1	2	3

RBPS ID # _____

25. You may be harassed just because of your race.	1	2	3
26. Never be ashamed of your race	1	2	3
27. You should remain true to your racial identity.	1	2	3
28. Our race is superior to other races.	1	2	3
29. You should encourage others from your racial group to be proud of their race.	1	2	3
30. You would be able to get a better education if other people were not racist.	1	2	3



ASEBA

Please print

YOUTH SELF-REPORT FOR AGES 11-18

For office use only
ID #

YOUR FULL NAME First Middle Last

YOUR GENDER ☐ Boy ☐ Girl

YOUR AGE

YOUR ETHNIC GROUP OR RACE

TODAY'S DATE Mo._____ Date _____ Yr. _____

YOUR BIRTHDATE Mo._____ Date _____ Yr. _____

GRADE IN SCHOOL _____

NOT ATTENDING SCHOOL ☐

IF YOU ARE WORKING, PLEASE STATE YOUR TYPE OF WORK:

_____

_____

PARENTS' USUAL TYPE OF WORK, even if not working now. *(Please be specific — for example, auto mechanic, high school teacher, homemaker, laborer, lathe operator, shoe salesman, army sergeant.)*

FATHER'S TYPE OF WORK _____

MOTHER'S TYPE OF WORK _____

Please fill out this form to reflect *your* views, even if other people might not agree. Feel free to print additional comments beside each item and in the spaces provided on pages 2 and 4. ***Be sure to answer all items.***

I. Please list the sports you most like to take part in. For example: swimming, baseball, skating, skate boarding, bike riding, fishing, etc.

☐ None

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

Compared to others of your age, about how much time do you spend in each?

	Less Than Average	Average	More Than Average
a.	☐	☐	☐
b.	☐	☐	☐
c.	☐	☐	☐

Compared to others of your age, how well do you do each one?

	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a.	☐	☐	☐
b.	☐	☐	☐
c.	☐	☐	☐

II. Please list your favorite hobbies, activities, and games, other than sports. For example: cards, books, piano, cars, computers, crafts, etc. (Do ***not*** include listening to radio or watching TV.)

☐ None

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

Compared to others of your age, about how much time do you spend in each?

	Less Than Average	Average	More Than Average
a.	☐	☐	☐
b.	☐	☐	☐
c.	☐	☐	☐

Compared to others of your age, how well do you do each one?

	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a.	☐	☐	☐
b.	☐	☐	☐
c.	☐	☐	☐

III. Please list any organizations, clubs, teams, or groups you belong to.

☐ None

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

Compared to others of your age, how active are you in each?

	Less Active	Average	More Active
a.	☐	☐	☐
b.	☐	☐	☐
c.	☐	☐	☐

IV. Please list any jobs or chores you have. For example: paper route, babysitting, making bed, working in store, etc. (Include ***both*** paid and unpaid jobs and chores.)

☐ None

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

Compared to others of your age, how well do you carry them out?

	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a.	☐	☐	☐
b.	☐	☐	☐
c.	☐	☐	☐

Be sure you answered all items. Then see other side.

Please print. Be sure to answer all items.

V. 1. About how many close friends do you have? (Do *not* include brothers & sisters)

❒ None ❒ 1 ❒ 2 or 3 ❒ 4 or more

2. About how many times a week do you do things with any friends outside of regular school hours?
(Do *not* include brothers & sisters) ❒ Less than 1 ❒ 1 or 2 ❒ 3 or more

VI. Compared to others of your age, how well do you:

	Worse	Average	Better	
a. Get along with your brothers & sisters?	❒	❒	❒	❒ I have no brothers or sisters
b. Get along with other kids?	❒	❒	❒	
c. Get along with your parents?	❒	❒	❒	
d. Do things by yourself?	❒	❒	❒	

VII. 1. Performance in academic subjects. ❒ I do not attend school because _____

_____

Check a box for each subject that you take	Failing	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a. English or Language Arts	❒	❒	❒	❒
b. History or Social Studies	❒	❒	❒	❒
c. Arithmetic or Math	❒	❒	❒	❒
d. Science	❒	❒	❒	❒
e. _____	❒	❒	❒	❒
f. _____	❒	❒	❒	❒
g. _____	❒	❒	❒	❒

Other academic subjects–for example: computer courses, foreign language, business. Do ***not*** include gym, shop, driver's ed., or other nonacademic subjects.

Do you have any illness, disability, or handicap? ❒ No ❒ Yes—please describe:

Please describe any concerns or problems you have about school:

Please describe any other concerns you have:

Please describe the best things about youself:

Be sure you answered all items.

Please print. Be sure to answer all items.

Below is a list of items that describe kids. For each item that describes you ***now or within the past 6 months***, please circle the ***2*** if the item is ***very true or often true*** of you. Circle the ***1*** if the item is ***somewhat or sometimes true*** of you. If the item is ***not true*** of you, circle the ***0***.

0 = Not True **1 = Somewhat or Sometimes True** **2 = Very True or Often True**

0 1 2 1. I act too young for my age
0 1 2 2. I drink alcohol without my parents' approval (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 3. I argue a lot
0 1 2 4. I fail to finish things that I start
0 1 2 5. There is very little that I enjoy
0 1 2 6. I like animals
0 1 2 7. I brag
0 1 2 8. I have trouble concentrating or paying attention
0 1 2 9. I can't get my mind off certain thoughts; (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 10. I have trouble sitting still
0 1 2 11. I'm too dependent on adults
0 1 2 12. I feel lonely
0 1 2 13. I feel confused or in a fog
0 1 2 14. I cry a lot
0 1 2 15. I am pretty honest
0 1 2 16. I am mean to others
0 1 2 17. I daydream a lot
0 1 2 18. I deliberately try to hurt or kill myself
0 1 2 19. I try to get a lot of attention
0 1 2 20. I destroy my own things
0 1 2 21. I destroy things belonging to others
0 1 2 22. I disobey my parents
0 1 2 23. I disobey at school
0 1 2 24. I don't eat as well as I should
0 1 2 25. I don't get along with other kids
0 1 2 26. I don't feel guilty after doing something I shouldn't
0 1 2 27. I am jealous of others
0 1 2 28. I break rules at home, school, or elsewhere
0 1 2 29. I am afraid of certain animals, situations, or places, other than school (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 30. I am afraid of going to school
0 1 2 31. I am afraid I might think or do something bad
0 1 2 32. I feel that I have to be perfect
0 1 2 33. I feel that no one loves me
0 1 2 34. I feel that others are out to get me
0 1 2 35. I feel worthless or inferior
0 1 2 36. I accidentally get hurt a lot
0 1 2 37. I get in many fights
0 1 2 38. I get teased a lot
0 1 2 39. I hang around with kids who get in trouble
0 1 2 40. I hear sounds or voices that other people think aren't there (describe): _____
_____
_____
0 1 2 41. I act without stopping to think
0 1 2 42. I would rather be alone than with others
0 1 2 43. I lie or cheat
0 1 2 44. I bite my fingernails
0 1 2 45. I am nervous or tense
0 1 2 46. Parts of my body twitch or make nervous movements (describe): _____
_____
_____
0 1 2 47. I have nightmares
0 1 2 48. I am not liked by other kids
0 1 2 49. I can do certain things better than most kids
0 1 2 50. I am too fearful or anxious
0 1 2 51. I feel dizzy or lightheaded
0 1 2 52. I feel too guilty
0 1 2 53. I eat too much
0 1 2 54. I feel overtired without good reason
0 1 2 55. I am overweight
56. Physical problems ***without known medical cause:***
0 1 2 a. Aches or pains (***not*** stomach or headaches)
0 1 2 b. Headaches
0 1 2 c. Nausea, feel sick
0 1 2 d. Problems with eyes (***not*** if corrected by glasses) (describe): _____
0 1 2 e. Rashes or other skin problems
0 1 2 f. Stomachaches
0 1 2 g. Vomiting, throwing up
0 1 2 h. Other (describe): _____
_____

 Be sure you answered all items. Then see other side.

Please print. Be sure to answer all items.

0 = Not True **1 = Somewhat or Sometimes True** **2 = Very True or Often True**

0 1 2 57. I physically attack people
0 1 2 58. I pick my skin or other parts of my body (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 59. I can be pretty friendly
0 1 2 60. I like to try new things
0 1 2 61. My school work is poor
0 1 2 62. I am poorly coordinated or clumsy
0 1 2 63. I would rather be with older kids than kids my own age
0 1 2 64. I would rather be with younger kids than kids my own age
0 1 2 65. I refuse to talk
0 1 2 66. I repeat certain acts over and over (describe):
_____
_____
0 1 2 67. I run away from home
0 1 2 68. I scream a lot
0 1 2 69. I am secretive or keep things to myself
0 1 2 70. I see things that other people think aren't there (describe):_____
_____
0 1 2 71. I am self-conscious or easily embarrassed
0 1 2 72. I set fires
0 1 2 73. I can work well with my hands
0 1 2 74. I show off or clown
0 1 2 75. I am too shy or timid
0 1 2 76. I sleep less than most kids
0 1 2 77. I sleep more than most kids during day and/or night (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 78. I am inattentive or easily distracted
0 1 2 79. I have a speech problem (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 80. I stand up for my rights
0 1 2 81. I steal at home
0 1 2 82. I steal from places other than home
0 1 2 83. I store up too many things I don't need (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 84. I do things other people think are strange (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 85. I have thoughts that other people would think are strange (describe):_____
_____
0 1 2 86. I am stubborn
0 1 2 87. My moods or feelings change suddenly
0 1 2 88. I enjoy being with people
0 1 2 89. I am suspicious
0 1 2 90. I swear or use dirty language
0 1 2 91. I think about killing myself
0 1 2 92. I like to make others laugh
0 1 2 93. I talk too much
0 1 2 94. I tease others a lot
0 1 2 95. I have a hot temper
0 1 2 96. I think about sex too much
0 1 2 97. I threaten to hurt people
0 1 2 98. I like to help others
0 1 2 99. I smoke, chew, or sniff tobacco
0 1 2 100. I have trouble sleeping (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 101. I cut classes or skip school
0 1 2 102. I don't have much energy
0 1 2 103. I am unhappy, sad, or depressed
0 1 2 104. I am louder than other kids
0 1 2 105. I use drugs for nonmedical purposes (***don't*** include alcohol or tobacco) (describe): _____
_____
_____
_____
0 1 2 106. I like to be fair to others
0 1 2 107. I enjoy a good joke
0 1 2 108. I like to take life easy
0 1 2 109. I try to help other people when I can
0 1 2 110. I wish I were of the opposite sex
0 1 2 111. I keep from getting involved with others
0 1 2 112. I worry a lot

Please be sure you answered all items

Please write down anything else that describes your feelings, behavior, or interests:

APPENDIX B

PARENT MEASURES

Family Demographic Form

Please respond to the following questions as they relate to YOU.

Date of birth: _____

Gender: Male
Female

Relationship to child: Mother
Father
Other (*please specify*): _____

Are you the child's legal guardian? Yes
No

What is your ethnicity? American Indian or Alaskan Native
Asian
Black or African American
Hispanic or Latino
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
White
Other (*please specify*): _____

What is your primary language? _____
secondary language? _____

Please rate your English speaking ability: Very well
Well
Not well
Not at all

What is your marital status? Single
Co-habitating
Married
Separated
Divorced
Widowed

What is your primary occupational status? (*Mark only one)*

Full-time (more than 34 hours per week)
Part-time (less than 34 hours per week)
Job training program with salary
Job training program without salary
Unemployed
In school and employed
In school and unemployed
Homemaker
Retired
Unable to work due to disability
Other
Not applicable

If working, what date did you start at the job? _____

What is the highest level of education you have completed? _____
What is the date that you completed your education? _____

Please list each person that lives in the child's home and indicate his or her relationship to the child:

1 _____
2 _____
3 _____
4 _____
5 _____
6 _____
7 _____

Please indicate the Annual Family Income (*circle only one*)

Less than $10,000
$10,001 - $20,000
$20,001 - $30,000
$30,001 - $40,000
$40,001 - $50,000
$50,001 - $60,000
$60,001 - $70,000
$70,001 - $80,000
Above $80,000

Please respond to the following questions as they relate to the <u>CHILD</u>.

Date of birth: _____

Gender: Male
Female

Grade in school: _____

Ethnicity: American Indian or Alaskan Native
Asian
Black or African American
Hispanic or Latino
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
White
Other (please specify): _____

Primary language: _____
Secondary language: _____

English speaking ability: Very well
Well
Not well
Not at all

Please respond to the following questions as they relate to the <u>CHILD'S MOTHER</u>. If you are the child's mother, you may skip this part.

Date of birth: _____

Ethnicity: American Indian or Alaskan Native
Asian
Black or African American
Hispanic or Latino
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
White
Other (please specify): _____

Primary language: _____
Secondary language: _____

English speaking ability: Very well
Well
Not well
Not at all

Please respond to the following questions as they relate to the <u>CHILD'S FATHER</u>. If you are the child's father, you may skip this part.

Date of birth: _____

Ethnicity: American Indian or Alaskan Native
Asian
Black or African American
Hispanic or Latino
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
White
Other (please specify): _____

Primary language: _____
Secondary language: _____

English speaking ability: Very well
Well
Not well
Not at all

The University of New Orleans
Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ)

Instructions: The following are a number of statements about your family. Please rate each item as to how often it USUALLY occurs or has occurred in your home during the past year. The possible answers are Never (1), Almost Never (2), Sometimes (3), Often (4), Always (5).

		Never	Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Always
1.	You have a friendly talk with your child.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	You let your child know when he/she is doing a good job with something.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	You threaten to punish your child and then do not actually punish him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	You volunteer to help with special activities that your child is involved in (such as sports, boy/girl scouts, church youth groups).	1	2	3	4	5
5.	You reward or give something extra to your child for obeying you or behaving well.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Your child fails to leave a note or to let you know where he/she is going.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	You play games or do other fun things with your child.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Your child talks you out of being punished after he/she has done something wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	You ask your child about his/her day in school.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Your child stays out in the evening past the time he/she is supposed to be done.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	You help your child with his/her homework.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	You feel that getting your child to obey you is more trouble than it's	1	2	3	4	5

		Never	Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Always
	worth.					
13.	You compliment your child when he/she does something well.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	You ask your child what his/her plans are for the coming day.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	You drive your child to a special activity.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	You praise your child if he/she behaves well.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Your child is out with friends you do not know.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	You hug or kiss your child when he/she has done something well.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	You child goes out without a set time to go home.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	You talk to your child about his/her friends.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Your child is out after dark without an adult with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	You let your child out of a punishment early (like lift restrictions earlier than you originally said).	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Your child helps plan family activities.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	You get so busy that you forget where your child is and what he/she is doing.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Your child is not punished when he/she has done something wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	You attend PTA meetings, parent/teacher conferences, or other meetings at your child's school.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	You tell your child that you like it when he/she helps out around the house.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	You don't check that your child					

		Never	Almost Never	Some-times	Often	Always
	comes home at the time she/he was supposed to.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	You don't tell your child where you are going.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Your child comes home from school more than an hour past the time you expect him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	The punishment you give your child depends on your mood.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Your child is at home without adult supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	You ignore your child when he/she has done something wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	You take away privileges or money from your child as a punishment.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	You send your child to his/her room as a punishment.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	You yell or scream at your child when he/she has done something wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	You calmly explain to your child why his/her behavior was wrong when he/she misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	You use time out (make him/her sit or stand in a corner) as a punishment.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	You give your child extra chores as a punishment.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
43.	Parents should expect kids my child's age to do some work around the house.	1	2	3	4
44.	Kids my child's age should call home if they think they might be late.	1	2	3	4

45.	Kids my child's age should clean up for themselves without having to be told.	1	2	3	4

PERS

Do you ever say any of the following statements to your children? Circle the number depending on how often you say any of these messages: 1- Never, 2- A Few Times, 3- Lots of Times. Circle only one number per question. Thank you.

1.	American society is fair toward Black people.	1	2	3
2.	Black children will feel better about themselves if they go to a school with mostly white children.	1	2	3
3.	Families who go to a church or mosque will be close and stay together.	1	2	3
4.	Black slavery is important never to forget.	1	2	3
5.	Relatives can help Black parents raise their children.	1	2	3
6.	Religion is an important part of a person's life.	1	2	3
7.	Racism and discrimination are the hardest things a Black child has to face.	1	2	3
8.	Having large families can help many Black families survive life struggles.	1	2	3
9.	You should be proud to be Black.	1	2	3
10.	All races are equal.	1	2	3
11.	If you work hard then you can overcome barriers in life.	1	2	3
12.	A belief in God can help a person deal with tough life struggles.	1	2	3
13.	Black children will learn more if they go to a mostly white school.	1	2	3
14.	Knowing your African heritage is important for your survival.	1	2	3
15.	Racism is real and you have to understand it or it will hurt you.	1	2	3
16.	You are connected to a history that goes back to African royalty.	1	2	3
17.	Too much talk about racism will keep you from reaching your goals in life.	1	2	3
18.	Schools should be required to teach all children about Black history.	1	2	3
19.	Depending on religion and God will help you live a good life.	1	2	3
20.	Families who talk openly about religion or God will help each other to grow.	1	2	3
21.	Teachers can help Black children grow by showing signs of Black culture in the classroom.	1	2	3
22.	Only people who are blood-related to you should be called your "Family."	1	2	3
23.	Getting a good education is still the best way to get ahead.	1	2	3
24.	"Don't forget who your people are because you may need them someday."	1	2	3

Do you ever say any of the following statements to your children? Circle the number depending on how often you say any of these messages: 1- Never, 2- A Few Times, 3- Lots of Times. Circle only one number per question. Thank you.

25.	Spiritual battles that people fight are more important than physical battles.	1	2	3
26.	You should know about Black history so that you will be a better person.	1	2	3
27.	"Train up a child in the way he should go, and he will not turn away from it."	1	2	3
28.	You have to work twice as hard as whites in order to get ahead in this world.	1	2	3
29.	Whites make it hard to get ahead in this world.	1	2	3
30.	Be proud of who you are.	1	2	3
31.	Going to a Black school will help Black children feel better about themselves.	1	2	3
32.	You need to learn how to live in a White world and a Black world.	1	2	3
33.	Never be ashamed of your color.	1	2	3
34.	Whites have more opportunities than Blacks.	1	2	3
35.	A Black child or teenager will be harassed just because s/he is Black.	1	2	3
36.	More job opportunities would be open to African Americans if people were not racist.	1	2	3
37.	Black children should be taught early that God can protect them from racial hatred.	1	2	3
38.	Blacks don't always have the same opportunities as whites.	1	2	3
39.	Black children don't have to know about Africa in order to survive life in America.	1	2	3
40.	Racism is not as bad today as it used to be before the 1960's.	1	2	3

Please print **CHILD BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST FOR AGES 6-18**

For office use only
ID #

CHILD'S FULL NAME First Middle Last

CHILD'S GENDER ☐ Boy ☐ Girl

CHILD'S AGE

CHILD'S ETHNIC GROUP OR RACE

TODAY'S DATE Mo.____ Date ____ Yr. ____

CHILD'S BIRTHDATE Mo.____ Date ____ Yr. ____

GRADE IN SCHOOL ____

NOT ATTENDING SCHOOL ☐

Please fill out this form to reflect *your* view of the child's behavior even if other people might not agree. Feel free to print additional comments beside each item and in the space provided on page 2. ***Be sure to answer all items.***

PARENTS' USUAL TYPE OF WORK, even if not working now. *(Please be specific — for example, auto mechanic, high school teacher, homemaker, laborer, lathe operator, shoe salesman, army sergeant.)*

FATHER'S TYPE OF WORK ____

MOTHER'S TYPE OF WORK ____

THIS FORM FILLED OUT BY: (print your full name)

____

Your gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

Your relation to the child:

☐ Biological Parent ☐ Step Parent ☐ Grandparent

☐ Adoptive Parent ☐ Foster Parent ☐ Other (specify)____

I. Please list the sports your child most likes to take part in. For example: swimming, baseball, skating, skate boarding, bike riding, fishing, etc.

☐ None

	Compared to others of the same age, about how much time does he/she spend in each?				Compared to others of the same age, how well does he/she do each one?			
	Less Than Average	Average	More Than Average	Don't Know	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Don't Know
a. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

II. Please list your child's favorite hobbies, activities, and games, other than sports. For example: stamps, dolls, books, piano, crafts, cars, computers, singing, etc. (Do ***not*** include listening to radio or TV.)

☐ None

	Compared to others of the same age, about how much time does he/she spend in each?				Compared to others of the same age, how well does he/she do each one?			
	Less Than Average	Average	More Than Average	Don't Know	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Don't Know
a. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

III. Please list any organizations, clubs, teams, or groups your child belongs to.

☐ None

	Compared to others of the same age, how active is he/she in each?			
	Less Active	Average	More Active	Don't Know
a. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐

IV. Please list any jobs or chores your child has. For example: paper route, babysitting, making bed, working in store, etc. (Include both paid and unpaid jobs and chores.)

☐ None

	Compared to others of the same age, how well does he/she carry them out?			
	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Don't Know
a. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. ____	☐	☐	☐	☐

Be sure you answered all items. Then see other side.

Please print. Be sure to answer all items.

V. 1. About how many close friends does your child have? (Do *not* include brothers & sisters)

☐ None ☐ 1 ☐ 2 or 3 ☐ 4 or more

2. About how many times a week does your child do things with any friends outside of regular school hours? (Do *not* include brothers & sisters)

☐ Less than 1 ☐ 1 or 2 ☐ 3 or more

VI. Compared to others of his/her age, how well does your child:

	Worse	Average	Better	
a. Get along with his/her brothers & sisters?	☐	☐	☐	☐ Has no brothers or sisters
b. Get along with other kids?	☐	☐	☐	
c. Behave with his/her parents?	☐	☐	☐	
d. Play and work alone?	☐	☐	☐	

VII. 1. Performance in academic subjects. ☐ Does not attend school because _____

	Check a box for each subject that child takes	Failing	Below Average	Average	Above Average
Other academic subjects–for example: computer courses, foreign language, business. Do *not* include gym, shop, driver's ed., or other nonacademic subjects.	a. Reading, English, or Language Arts	☐	☐	☐	☐
	b. History or Social Studies	☐	☐	☐	☐
	c. Arithmetic or Math	☐	☐	☐	☐
	d. Science	☐	☐	☐	☐
	e. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
	f. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐
	g. _____	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. Does your child receive special education or remedial services or attend a special class or special school?

☐ No ☐ Yes—kind of services, class, or school:

3. Has your child repeated any grades? ☐ No ☐ Yes—grades and reasons:

4. Has your child had any academic or other problems in school? ☐ No ☐ Yes—please describe:

When did these problems start?_____

Have these problems ended? ☐ No ☐ Yes–when?

Does your child have any illness or disability (either physical or mental)? ☐ No ☐ Yes—please describe:

What concerns you most about your child?

Please describe the best things about your child.

Be sure you answered all items.

Please print. Be sure to answer all items.

Below is a list of items that describe children and youths. For each item that describes your child ***now or within the past 6 months***, please circle the ***2*** if the item is ***very true or often true*** of your child. Circle the ***1*** if the item is ***somewhat or sometimes true*** of your child. If the item is ***not true*** of your child, circle the ***0***. Please answer all items as well as you can, even if some do not seem to apply to your child.

0 = Not True (as far as you know) **1 = Somewhat or Sometimes True** **2 = Very True or Often True**

0 1 2 1. Acts too young for his/her age
0 1 2 2. Drinks alcohol without parents' approval (describe):_____
0 1 2 3. Argues a lot
0 1 2 4. Fails to finish things he/she starts
0 1 2 5. There is very little he/she enjoys
0 1 2 6. Bowel movements outside toilet
0 1 2 7. Bragging, boasting
0 1 2 8. Can't concentrate, can't pay attention for long
0 1 2 9. Can't get his/her mind off certain thoughts; obsessions (describe): _____
0 1 2 10. Can't sit still, restless, or hyperactive
0 1 2 11. Clings to adults or too dependent
0 1 2 12. Complains of loneliness
0 1 2 13. Confused or seems to be in a fog
0 1 2 14. Cries a lot
0 1 2 15. Cruel to animals
0 1 2 16. Cruelty, bullying, or meanness to others
0 1 2 17. Daydreams or gets lost in his/her thoughts
0 1 2 18. Deliberately harms self or attempts suicide
0 1 2 19. Demands a lot of attention
0 1 2 20. Destroys his/her own things
0 1 2 21. Destroys things belonging to his/her family or others
0 1 2 22. Disobedient at home
0 1 2 23. Disobedient at school
0 1 2 24. Doesn't eat well
0 1 2 25. Doesn't get along with other kids
0 1 2 26. Doesn't seem to feel guilty after misbehaving
0 1 2 27. Easily jealous
0 1 2 28. Breaks rules at home, school, or elsewhere
0 1 2 29. Fears certain animals, situations, or places, other than school (describe): _____
0 1 2 30. Fears going to school
0 1 2 31. Fears he/she might think or do something bad
0 1 2 32. Feels he/she has to be perfect
0 1 2 33. Feels or complains that no one loves him/her
0 1 2 34. Feels others are out to get him/her
0 1 2 35. Feels worthless or inferior
0 1 2 36. Gets hurt a lot, accident-prone
0 1 2 37. Gets in many fights
0 1 2 38. Gets teased a lot
0 1 2 39. Hangs around with others who get in trouble
0 1 2 40. Hears sounds or voices that aren't there (describe): _____
0 1 2 41. Impulsive or acts without thinking
0 1 2 42. Would rather be alone than with others
0 1 2 43. Lying or cheating
0 1 2 44. Bites fingernails
0 1 2 45. Nervous, highstrung, or tense
0 1 2 46. Nervous movements or twitching (describe): _____
0 1 2 47. Nightmares
0 1 2 48. Not liked by other kids
0 1 2 49. Constipated, doesn't move bowels
0 1 2 50. Too fearful or anxious
0 1 2 51. Feels dizzy or lightheaded
0 1 2 52. Feels too guilty
0 1 2 53. Overeating
0 1 2 54. Overtired without good reason
0 1 2 55. Overweight
56. Physical problems ***without known medical cause:***
0 1 2 a. Aches or pains (***not*** stomach or headaches)
0 1 2 b. Headaches
0 1 2 c. Nausea, feels sick
0 1 2 d. Problems with eyes (***not*** if corrected by glasses) (describe): _____
0 1 2 e. Rashes or other skin problems
0 1 2 f. Stomachaches
0 1 2 g. Vomiting, throwing up
0 1 2 h. Other (describe): _____

 Be sure you answered all items. Then see other side.

Please print. Be sure to answer all items.

0 = Not True (as far as you know) **1 = Somewhat or Sometimes True** **2 = Very True or Often True**

0 1 2 57. Physically attacks people
0 1 2 58. Picks nose, skin, or other parts of body (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 59. Plays with own sex parts in public
0 1 2 60. Plays with own sex parts too much
0 1 2 61. Poor school work
0 1 2 62. Poorly coordinated or clumsy
0 1 2 63. Prefers being with older kids
0 1 2 64. Prefers being with younger kids
0 1 2 65. Refuses to talk
0 1 2 66. Repeats certain acts over and over; compulsions (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 67. Runs away from home
0 1 2 68. Screams a lot
0 1 2 69. Secretive, keeps things to self
0 1 2 70. Sees things that aren't there (describe): _____
_____
_____
0 1 2 71. Self-conscious or easily embarrassed
0 1 2 72. Sets fires
0 1 2 73. Sexual problems (describe): _____
_____
_____
0 1 2 74. Showing off or clowning
0 1 2 75. Too shy or timid
0 1 2 76. Sleeps less than most kids
0 1 2 77. Sleeps more than most kids during day and/or night (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 78. Inattentive or easily distracted
0 1 2 79. Speech problem (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 80. Stares blankly
0 1 2 81. Steals at home
0 1 2 82. Steals outside the home
0 1 2 83. Stores up too many things he/she doesn't need (describe): _____
_____
_____
0 1 2 84. Strange behavior (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 85. Strange ideas (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 86. Stubborn, sullen, or irritable
0 1 2 87. Sudden changes in mood or feelings
0 1 2 88. Sulks a lot
0 1 2 89. Suspicious
0 1 2 90. Swearing or obscene language
0 1 2 91. Talks about killing self
0 1 2 92. Talks or walks in sleep (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 93. Talks too much
0 1 2 94. Teases a lot
0 1 2 95. Temper tantrums or hot temper
0 1 2 96. Thinks about sex too much
0 1 2 97. Threatens people
0 1 2 98. Thumb-sucking
0 1 2 99. Smokes, chews, or sniffs tobacco
0 1 2 100. Trouble sleeping (describe): _____
_____
0 1 2 101. Truancy, skips school
0 1 2 102. Underactive, slow moving, or lacks energy
0 1 2 103. Unhappy, sad, or depressed
0 1 2 104. Unusually loud
0 1 2 105. Uses drugs for nonmedical purposes (***don't*** include alcohol or tobacco) (describe): _____
_____
_____
0 1 2 106. Vandalism
0 1 2 107. Wets self during the day
0 1 2 108. Wets the bed
0 1 2 109. Whining
0 1 2 110. Wishes to be of opposite sex
0 1 2 111. Withdrawn, doesn't get involved with others
0 1 2 112. Worries
113. Please write in any problems your child has that were not listed above:
0 1 2 _____
0 1 2 _____
0 1 2 _____

Please be sure you answered all items.

APPENDIX C

RECRUITMENT LETTER

Spring 2007

Dear Parent/Guardian:

You and your child are invited to participate in a research project being conducted at Family Focus Evanston. We are interested in learning more about the types of strategies that children use to cope with everyday problems, how strategies by parents and caretakers help children cope with problems, and how child and parent strategies support children's well-being. We are inviting all 4th through 8th grade students and their families to meet with researchers from Loyola University to fill out a packet of surveys. Your child will complete the surveys with help from a researcher from Loyola University. You have the option of completing the surveys at home and returning them to researchers or completing them on site at the Family Focus center. The surveys will take approximately 2 hours to complete. You will have the opportunity to view all of the questions on the survey before you sign the consent form or you or your child participates. If you are reading this letter at Family Focus and wish to view the surveys, please ask the researcher who is recruiting you and direct any questions to this person. If you are reading this letter at home and wish to view the surveys, please call Professor Gaylord-Harden at the number below and she will arrange a time for a researcher to meet with you at Family Focus to review the surveys. You and your child do not have to complete any parts of the surveys that you do not wish to complete.

Ms. Sandra Hill, Director of Family Focus Evanston, has approved this project. You and your child's participation are completely voluntary and there will be no penalty should you or your child decide to withdraw or not to finish. **Please read the information on the following pages carefully**. This information fully describes the research project. If you are interested in allowing your child to participate, please sign the last page and return the entire form to the researcher or to the staff at Family Focus Evanston. The form may be returned to Family Focus by you or your child. When you meet with the researchers to complete the surveys, you will be given a copy of the form for your records. In two-parent families, only one parent needs to sign the form.

If you have any questions, please call us at (773) 508-2986 and ask to speak to Professor Noni Gaylord-Harden. We are excited about working with families at Family Focus Evanston, and we greatly appreciate your support!

Sincerely,

Noni Gaylord-Harden, Ph.D.
Professor, Loyola University Chicago

APPENDIX D

CONSENT FORM

FAMILY FOCUS EVANSTON PROJECT
PARENT CONSENT FORM

WHY IS THIS STUDY BEING DONE?

You and your child are invited to participate in a research project aimed at understanding how African American and Latino youth cope with the problems that youth their age commonly face, how parent strategies may help youth cope these problems, and how parent and youth strategies may be related to more positive behavior in youth. This project is being conducted by Professors Noni Gaylord-Harden, Suzette Speight, and Anita Thomas of Loyola University Chicago. We ask that you carefully read through the following information before agreeing to have you and your child be a part of this research project.

WHAT WILL MY CHILD AND I BE ASKED TO DO?

- Children who have been given parental permission will complete a packet of seven surveys (4^{th} and 5^{th} grade participants) or a packet of nine surveys (6^{th} – 8^{th} grade participants) in individual sessions at the Family Focus Evanston facility. All child and adolescent participants (4^{th} – 8^{th} grade) will complete the surveys in two one-hour sessions. Children will complete surveys with a research assistant in a space designated by the Family Focus staff.
- Parents will complete a packet of surveys containing nine measures. Parents will be contacted by a research assistant from Loyola University and informed of scheduled group data collection sessions. If you are unable to attend a scheduled group session, we will schedule an individual session. Parents will meet with the research assistants at the Family Focus Evanston facility (2010 Dewey Avenue) or a satellite Family Focus center. The parent surveys will take approximately 2 hours to complete. Parent surveys will be scheduled to be administered in one session; however, you have the option completing your surveys in two one-hour sessions. Surveys can also be completed at home and returned to researchers or to the Family Focus center.
- There will be no right or wrong answers to the surveys.
- We will be asking you to answer questions about your parenting strategies (e.g., discipline and monitoring your child), how you cope with stress, how you help your child cope with stress, your racial identity, how you talk to your child about race issues, conflicts between you and your significant other (if relevant), and your child's behavior. We will ask your child to answer questions about stress that they experience at home, school, and in the community, conflicts between you and your significant other (if relevant), what strategies they use to cope with stress, how they believe you help them cope with stress, their view of your

parenting strategies (e.g., support, discipline, monitoring), their racial identity, how you talk with them about race issues, and their behavior.

WHAT ARE THE POSSIBLE RISKS OR SIDE EFFECTS (BAD THINGS) OF THE STUDY?

Although risks are minimal, some of the coping and stress questions may bring up unpleasant thoughts or feelings. Please note that the some of the questions ask about sensitive issues such as peer pressure, sex, exposure to violence, racism, and drugs. Questions about sex will not be asked to 4th and 5th grade participants. You may request to view all of the questions on the survey before you or your child participates. If you are reading this form at Family Focus and wish to view the surveys, please ask the researcher who is recruiting you and direct any questions to this person. If you are reading this form at home and wish to view the surveys, please call Professor Gaylord-Harden at the number below and she will arrange a time for a researcher to meet with you at Family Focus to review the surveys. You and your child do not have to complete any parts of the surveys that you do not wish to complete.

If you or your child is having some uncomfortable thoughts and/or feelings, the research assistants are available to answer questions or address concerns. If we feel that additional attention is needed, we will ask you or your child to meet with one of the counselors at Family Focus Evanston. If you have questions or concerns, you can call Professor Noni Gaylord-Harden at (773) 508-2986. You and your child are not required to discuss anything they are not comfortable discussing. There will be no penalty should you decide to withdraw or not to finish.

ARE THERE BENEFITS (GOOD THINGS) TO TAKING PART IN THE STUDY?

There is no direct benefit to participants. The research project is being conducted to help us learn more about the types of strategies that children use to cope with everyday problems, how strategies by parents and caretakers help children cope with problems, and how child and parent strategies support children's well-being. This information can then help in the design of intervention programs to support African American and Latino youth's use of positive coping skills. Therefore, we hope that with the involvement of families in the project, the future research and interventions will be the best they can be.

WHAT WILL WE RECEIVE FOR PARTICIPATING?

Your family will received $15 Jewel-Osco card for completion of the surveys and will be automatically entered in a raffle for a $100 gift card from Jewel-Osco. Your child will

participate in a pizza party at Family Focus Evanston and receive a Loyola University Chicago pencil and certificate.

WHO WILL KNOW ABOUT WHAT WE DID IN THE STUDY OR HAVE ACCESS TO OUR PRIVATE INFORMATION?

We will protect the privacy of those who participate in the research study. No identifying information will be shared with anyone who is not connected with the research project. Your family will be assigned a code number for the surveys. Only the researchers will have the lists of code numbers and participants' names and we will keep these lists separate. No parent or child will ever be identified by name in any of the information recorded in writing. No information about any child or parent will be made available to any staff member at Family Focus. Information presented at conferences or for publication will not identify any individuals who participated. Due to confidentiality issues, parents will not be allowed to view their children's responses to questions. As stated above, parents are encouraged to view a list of the questions that will be asked to children and talk with their children at home about any questions that they are concerned about.

ARE THERE SITUATIONS IN WHICH OUR INFORMATION MAY BE RELEASED?

If it becomes apparent to us during the meetings that your child is experiencing physical or sexual abuse, we are required by law to report such instances to Child Protective Services in the best interest of your child. Also, if you or your child provides information during the program that suggests he or she is in current danger to him/herself or other people, we are mandated by law to contact the appropriate agencies. If these potential situations arise, we will first talk with your child privately. If additional attention is needed, we will then ask your child to speak with a Family Focus counselor or psychologist and accompany them to a counselor's office. Parents/caregivers will then be contacted by phone and informed of the situation. Finally, the appropriate agency will be contacted or appropriate referral call will be made. All calls will be made on-site from the Family Focus center.

WHAT ARE MY RIGHTS AND MY CHILD'S RIGHTS AS RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS?

You and your child's participation in the research project are voluntary. By signing this consent form, you agree to have you and your child take part in this study. You may cancel your consent or take yourself or your child out of this study at any time without penalty.

If you have any questions at any time, please contact Professor Noni Gaylord-Harden at (773) 508-2986. Or if you would like to find out more about your rights as a research participant in this study, you can contact:

Compliance Manager
Office of University Research Services
Loyola University Chicago
(773) 508-2686

PLEASE SIGN BELOW AND RETURN THE ENTIRE FORM TO FAMILY FOCUS EVANSTON (2010 Dewey Avenue)

I agree to allow my family to participate in this research project. I have read and understand the above information. I have had an opportunity to ask questions and all of my questions have been answered.

_____	_____
Name of Child (PLEASE PRINT)	**Child's Age and Grade**
_____	_____
Name of Parent/Guardian (PLEASE PRINT)	**Phone Number**
_____	_____
Parent/Guardian Signature	**Date**

APPENDIX E

ASSENT FORM

FAMILY FOCUS EVANSTON PROJECT
YOUTH ASSENT FORM

WHAT IS THIS STUDY ABOUT? You and your parent(s) are being asked to be in a research project at Family Focus. This project wants to know how African American and Latino youth your age deal with the problems that they face everyday, how parents help you deal with these problems, and how these problems affect your behavior. Three professors from Loyola University Chicago are in charge of this project: Noni Gaylord-Harden, Suzette Speight, and Anita Thomas. You and your parent(s) decide whether or not you want to be in the study and you may stop participating at any time. We would like to explain how the project works below.

WHAT WILL I BE ASKED TO DO? When your parents give you permission to be in the project, you will meet with students from Loyola University. You will complete nine surveys with help from the students. There will be no right or wrong answers to the surveys. Your parents will complete their surveys at a different time at Family Focus. It will take about 2 hours to finish all of the surveys. Because two hours is a long time to work, you will meet with us two times. The first time we will meet for one hour to complete half of the surveys, and the second time we will meet for an hour to finish the rest of the surveys.

WHAT ARE THE RISKS (BAD THINGS) OF THE STUDY? Some of the questions about coping and stress may cause you to have unhappy thoughts or feelings. If anything makes you feel worried, angry, or sad, we will talk to you alone to answer any questions. If needed, we will ask you to meet with one of the counselors at Family Focus. If you have questions, you can call Professor Noni Gaylord-Harden at (773) 508-2986.

You do not have to answer anything that you do not want to answer. There will be no penalty if you decide that you do not want to finish the questions.

WHAT ARE THE BENEFITS (GOOD THINGS) TO TAKING PART IN THE STUDY? The research project is being done to help us learn more about how people your age handle everyday problems, how your parents help you deal with problems, and how the problems affect your behavior. What we learn can help us create programs to help African American and Latino youth to use positive ways to deal with problems. Therefore, we hope that with the help of the families like yours, the future programs will be the best they can be.

WHAT WILL I GET FOR PARTICIPATING? Your family will received $15 for completing the surveys and will be entered in a raffle for a $100 gift card from Jewel-Osco. You will also have a pizza party at Family Focus Evanston and receive a Loyola University Chicago pencil.

WHO WILL KNOW ABOUT WHAT I DID OR SAID IN THE STUDY? We will protect your privacy. No personal information (such as your name) will be given to counselors, teachers, or anyone who is not working on the project. None of your answers or other information about you will be shared with parents, teachers, counselors or anyone who is not working on the project. Your family will be given a special code number for the research project that only we will see. You and your parents will never be mentioned by name in anything we write about the project.

If you tell us that you are in danger because someone else is hurting you, or that you are a danger because you are hurting yourself or other people, the law requires us to tell the right person or agency. First, we will talk with you alone. Next, we may ask you to talk to a counselor at Family Focus. We will go with you when you talk to the counselor. Next, if we feel that we need to call an agency, we will call your parents first, and then call the agency.

If you have any questions at any time, please contact Professor Noni Gaylord-Harden at (773) 508-2986.
Or if you would like to find out more about your rights as a participant in this study, you can contact:

Compliance Manager
Office of University Research Services
Loyola University Chicago
(773) 508-2686

PLEASE SIGN BELOW AND RETURN THE ENTIRE FORM TO THE RESEARCHER

I agree to participate in this research project. I have read and understand how this study works and what I will be asked to do. I have had a chance to ask questions and all of my questions have been answered.

_____ Girl or Boy
Print Your Name (circle one)

_____ _____
Sign Your Name (write in cursive) Write today's date

_____

Write your age

APPENDIX F

INSTRUCTIONS FOR DATA COLLECTION

Introduction and Instructions for Data Collection with Children and Adolescents

"Hi, my name is _____ and the other people here today are _____. We are from Loyola University and the first thing we want you to know is that we appreciate your help. I want to tell you a little about what we will be doing today. We are interested in how African American youth your age deal with the problems that they face everyday, how parents help you deal with these problems, and how these problems affect your behavior. To do this, we are going to ask you to answer some questions. You and your parents signed our form and agreed that it is okay for you to participate in this project, but if you do not want to answer our questions, you do not have to."

Note: child also refers to adolescent below.

If a child declines to participate at this time or decides to terminate participate at any other point during the study, say, "That's fine. You can return to your classroom."

If a child does not decline to participate at this time, continue with the instructions below.

"Again, we will ask you to answer some questions for us. There are no right or wrong answers to our questions; we just want to know what you think and how you feel. Not everyone will have the same answers. Also, your answers to our questions will not be seen by anybody else at Family Focus or your parents. If you want, you can talk about it with your parents at home."

"I am here to help you if you need help as you answer the questions. If you want to read the questions yourself, you can do that. If you want me to read the questions to you, I will do that. Would you like to read the questions yourself or would you like me to read them to you?"

If the child tells you that he or she will read the question himself or herself, proceed to the next statement.

"Okay, each time you start a new set of questions, I will read the directions to you and show you how to answer them. Then, you can continue reading and answering the questions on your own. Each set of questions ends with a stop sign. When you see a stop sign, stop and wait for me before you continue. I will read the directions to the next set of questions. If you have trouble reading any of the questions or answer choices, please let me know and I will the question aloud. If you have trouble figuring out a certain word, please let me know and I will read the word aloud. If you do not feel comfortable answering a question, please write 'skip' next to the question so we know that you did not accidentally skip it."

If the child tells you that he or she wants you to read the questions, proceed to the next statement.

"Okay, I will read the questions to you. Each time we start a new set of questions, I will read the directions to you and show you how to answer them. Then, I will read each question and you will answer it. Each set of questions ends with a stop sign. When we get to a stop sign, we will stop, and I will read the directions to the next set of questions." "Are you ready? Let's begin."
During the administration of surveys:

If a child tells you that he or she cannot read a question, say "That's fine; I will read the question aloud." Then, read the question to them.

If a child tells you that he or she cannot read certain word, say "That's fine; I will read the word aloud." Then, read the word to them.

*If a child tells you that he or she does not understand a question after **he or she** has read it to himself or herself, first read the question to him or her. If the child still does not understand, respond by saying,* "Okay, you can either give an answer that you think works best or you can skip the question." If the child elects to skip the question, please write "skip" next to the question.

*If a child tells you that he or she does not understand a question after **you** read the question, respond by reading the question again. If the child still does not understand, respond by saying*, "Okay, you can either give an answer that you think works best or you can skip the question." If the child elects to skip the question, please write "skip" next to the question.

If a child tells you that he or she does not want to answer a question or does not feel comfortable answering a question say, "That's fine, we can go to the next question*." If the child elects to skip the question, please write "skip*" next to the question.

If a child tells you that he or she does not want to complete a particular questionnaire or does not feel comfortable completing a particular questionnaire say, "That's fine, we can go to the next set of questions." *If the child elects to skip a questionnaire, please write "skip survey" at the top of the first page of the form*.

If a child requests to take a break for bathroom or water, say, "Okay, let's take a short break about 5 or 10 minutes. I'll walk with you." *Do not allow the child to leave the room alone. Walk with the child to the bathroom or water fountain and wait until they are finished. Then, walk with the child back to the data collection room.*

If a child becomes visibly upset or distress (e.g., crying or withdrawn) during the data collection session, completion of questionnaires should be stopped immediately. "I notice that you seem upset. Let's stop the questions and you can tell me more about how you are feeling." *After the child finishes talking about his or her feelings, ask them if they would like to talk more about this with a Family Focus counselor. If they say yes, accompany them to the counselor's office and remain with the child until the situation subsides or the counselor indicates that it is okay for you to leave.*

If a child openly reports information about a plan for suicide or homicide, or openly reports being abused or neglected, inform the child that you will need to stop the questions for a few minutes. If Drs. Gaylord-Harden, Speight, and Thomas are not onsite, call one of them: Dr. Gaylord-Harden (773-538-4350 or 312-342-2846), Dr. Suzette Speight (312-915-6937 or 847-328-2685), or Dr. Anita Thomas (312-915-7403 or 847-404-4168). If they are onsite, inform them of the situation.

Alabama Parenting Questionnaire (APQ)

"Now we want you to describe some of your experiences with your parents or caregivers that you live with now. Some kids may live with only their mom, and some kids with only their dad, some kids with their mom and dad. Some kids may live with their grandmother or an aunt. We want you to answer questions about the person you live with that takes care of you. The sentence at the top of the page, says "I am answering these questions about my _____." Okay, the following are a number of statements about your family. Please answer each item as to how often it USUALLY occurs or has occurred in your home during the past year. The possible answers are Never (1), Almost Never (2), Sometimes (3), Often (4), Always (5). Now, see the glass with nothing in it? It has Never under it. See the cup that is half full? It has Sometimes under it. See the cup that is full? It has Always under it. You can use the cups to help you answer the questions. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers. Just be honest. If none of the choices seem to fit, just pick the best one."

Youth Self-Report (YSR)

Note: This form is only used with 6th, 7th, and 8th grade participants.

The first page of this questionnaire asks about demographic information (child gender, age, etc.). Do not complete the demographic information on this questionnaire.

For page 1, question 1, participants should list the sports they enjoy doing next to a, b, and c. They may list up to 3 of their favorite sports. If they do not participate in any sports, they should check the box next to "None" and proceed to question number 2. For each sport listed, participants should indicate how much time they spend in each sport compared to others by selecting "less than average," "average," or "more than average." Next, participants should indicate how well they do each sport compared to others by selecting "below average," "average", or "more than average." This format should be followed for question 2 (hobbies), question 3 (organizations, clubs), and question 4 (jobs, chores).

Instructions for page 1 – "For each section below, please list the activities that the item asks about. You may list 1 to 3 activities. If you do not participate in any activities for a particular section, check the box next to 'none.' If you participate in more than 3 activities, list your top 3 activities."

Instructions for page 2 – "Answer each item with the answer choices given."

Instructions for pages 3 and 4 – "Below is a list of items that describe kids. For each item that describes you now or within the past 6 months, please circle the 2 if the item is very true or often true of you. Circle the 1 if the item is somewhat or sometimes true of you. If the item is not true of you, circle the 0."

Racial Bias Preparation Scale (RBPS)

"Please circle the number that corresponds to how often, if ever, any of your parents or primary caregivers said any of the following statements to you now or when you were younger. For 'never' circle 1, for 'a few times' circle 2, and for 'a lot' circle 3. Now, see the glass with nothing in it? It has 'Never' under it. See the cup that is half full? It has 'A few times' under it. See the cup that is full? It has 'A lot' under it. You can use the cups to help you answer the questions. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers. If none of the choices seem to fit, just pick the best one."

After measures are completed:

"We are finished! Thank you so much for all your hard work. Please wait for a moment while I make sure that we/you did not accidentally skip any questions."

Check to see that every item has been completed, with the exception of those that the child requested to skip. If the child read the questionnaires to him or herself and an item was left blank, ask the child, "I noticed that this item is blank. Did you accidentally skip this item or did you skip it on purpose?" *If the child indicated that he or she skipped the item on purpose, write skip next to the item.*

When you finish checking the questionnaires, ask the child if they have any questions for you, thank the child again, tell him or her that he or she did a great job, and present him or her with the Loyola University pencil and certificate of appreciation.

Introduction and Instructions for Data Collection with Parents

"Hi, my name is _____ and the other people here today are _____. We are from the Loyola University and the first thing we want you to know is that we appreciate your help today. I want to tell you a little about what we will be doing today. We are interested in learning more about the types of strategies that children use to cope with everyday problems, how strategies by parents and caretakers help children cope with problems, and how child and parent strategies support children's well-being. We are going to ask you to answer some questions for us today. If you decide that you do not want to answer our questions, you do not have to. Just let us know that you do not want to participate."

If a parent declines to participate at this time or decides to terminate participate at any other point during the study, say, "That's fine. Thank you for your time."

If a parent does not decline to participate at this time, continue with the instructions below.

"I am (or we are) here to help you if you need help as you answer the questions. If you have a question, just ask. If you want to read the questions yourself, you can do that. If you want me (one of us) to read the questions to you, I (we) will do that. Just let me know what you prefer."

If a parent tells you that he or she will read the question himself or herself, proceed to the next statement.

"Okay. Are you ready? Let's begin. There are nine surveys in this packet. Each survey has a set of instructions at the top. Please read each set of instructions before completing the survey. If you have any questions about how to complete the survey, please feel free to ask me. If you decide that you do not want to answer a question, please write the word 'skip' next to the question, so we know that you did not accidentally skip it."

If a parent tells you that he or she wants you to read the questions, proceed to the next statement.

"Okay, I will read the questions for you. Each time we start a new set of questions, I will read the directions to you and show you how to answer them. Then, I will read each question and you will answer it. When we get to a new survey, we will stop, and I will read the directions to the next set of questions."

During the administration of surveys:

*If a parent tells you that he or she cannot read a question, say "*That's fine; I will read the question aloud." *Then, read the question to them.*

If a parent tells you that he or she cannot read certain word, say "That's fine; I will read the word aloud." *Then, read the word to them.*

If a parent tells you that he or she does not understand a question after ***he or she*** *has read it to himself or herself, first read the question to him or her. If the parent still does not understand, respond by saying,* "Okay, you can either give an answer that you think works best or you can skip the question." *If the parent elects to skip the question, please write "skip" next to the question.*

If a parent tells you that he or she does not understand a question after ***you*** *read the question, respond by reading the question again. If the parent still does not understand, respond by saying,* "Okay, you can either give an answer that you think works best or you can skip the question." *If the parent elects to skip the question, please write "skip" next to the question.*

If a parent tells you that he or she does not want to answer a question or does not feel comfortable answering a question say, "That's fine, we can go to the next question." *If the parent elects to skip the question, please write "skip" next to the question.*

If a parent tells you that he or she does not want to complete a particular questionnaire or does not feel comfortable completing a particular questionnaire say, "That's fine, we can go to the next set of questions." *If the parent elects to skip a questionnaire, please write "skip survey" at the top of the first page of the form.*

If a parent requests to take a break for bathroom or water, say, "Sure, I'll wait here in the room for you."

If a parent becomes visibly upset or distress (e.g., crying or withdrawn) during the data collection session, completion of questionnaires should be stopped immediately. "I notice that you seem upset. Let's stop the questions and you can tell me more about how you are feeling." *After the parent finishes talking about his or her feelings, ask them if they would like to talk more about this with a Family Focus counselor. If they say yes, accompany them to the counselor's office and remain with the parent until the situation subsides or the counselor indicates that it is okay for you to leave.*

After measures are completed:

"We are finished! Thank you so much for all your hard work. Please wait for a moment while I make sure that we/you did not accidentally skip any questions."

Check to see that every item has been completed, with the exception of those that the parent requested to skip. If the parent read the questionnaires to him or herself and an item was left blank, ask the parent, "I noticed that this item is blank. Did you accidentally skip this item or did you skip it on purpose?" *If the parent indicated that he or she skipped the item on purpose, write skip next to the item.*

When you finish checking the questionnaires, ask the parent if they have any questions for you, thank the parent again, and give him or her with the gift card. Inform them that are automatically entered in a raffle for a $100 gift card to Jewel-Osco. If they win, we will contact them with the number listed on the consent form.

APPENDIX G

COMPENSATION RECEIPT

Loyola University Chicago
Family Focus Project
Research Participant Receipt for Compensation

Participant Name _____

Amount of Compensation _____

Date of Compensation_____

Signature of Participant_____

Signature of Witness_____

Please keep this form in research lab with parental consent forms.

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